kins, and a prodigious number of other great names, were unmoleſted and even favoured by that uſurper; and he would alſo have filled the univerſities with literary merit, could he have done it with any degree of ſafety to his government.

The reign of Charles II. was chiefly diſtinguiſhed by the great proficiency to which it carried natural knowledge, eſpecially by the inſtitution of the Royal Society. The king was a good judge of thoſe ſtudies, and, though irreligious himſelf, England never abounded more with learned and able divines than in his reign. He loved painting and poetry, but was far more munificent to the former than the latter. The incomparable Paradiſe Loſt, by Milton, was publiſhed in his reign, but was not read or attended to in proportion to its merit; though it was far from being diſregarded ſo much as has been commonly apprehended. The reign of Charles II. notwithſtanding the bad taſte of his court in ſeveral of the polite arts, by ſome is reckoned the Auguſtan age in England, and is dignified with the names of Boyle, Halley, Hooke, Sydenham, Harvey, Temple, Tillotſon, Barrow, Butler, Cowley, Waller, Dryden, Wycherley, and Otway. The pulpit aſſumed more majeſty, a better ſtyle, and truer energy than it had ever known before. Claſſic literature recovered many of its native graces; and though England could not, under him, boaſt of a Jones and a Vandyke, yet ſir Chriſtopher Wren introduced a more general regularity than had ever been known before in architecture. Nor was ſir Chriſtopher Wren merely diſtinguiſhed by his ſkill as an architect *. His knowledge was very extenſive, and his diſcoveries in philoſophy, mechanics, &c. contributed much to the reputation of the new-eſtabliſhed Royal Society. Some excellent Engliſh painters (for Lely and Kneller were foreigners) alſo flouriſhed in this reign.

That of James II. though he likewiſe had a taſte for the fine arts, is chiefly diſtinguiſhed in the province of literature by thoſe compoſitions that were publiſhed by the Engliſh divines againſt popery, and which, for ſtrength of reaſoning, and depth of erudition, never were equalled in any age or country.

The names of Newton and Locke adorned the reign of William III. and he had a particular eſteem for the latter, as he had alſo for Tillotſon and Burnet, though he was far from being liberal to men of genius. Learning flouriſhed, however, in his reign, merely by the excellency of the ſoil in which it had been planted.

The moſt uninformed readers are not unacquainted with the improvements which learning, and all the polite arts, received under the auſpices of queen Anne, and which put her court at leaſt on a footing with that of Lewis XIV. in its moſt ſplendid days. Many of the great men who had figured in the reigns of the Stuarts and William, were ſtill alive, and in the full exerciſe of their faculties, when a new race ſprung up in the republic of learning and the arts. Addiſon, Prior, Pope, Swift, lord Bolingbroke, lord Shafteſbury, Arbuthnot, Congreve, Steele, Rowe, and many other excellent writers, both in verſe and proſe, need but to be mentioned, to be admired; and the Engliſh were as triumphant in literature as in war. Natural and moral philoſophy kept pace with the polite arts;

* Mr. Horace Walpole ſays, that a variety of knowledge proclaims the univerſality, a multiplicity of works the abundance, and St. Paul's the greatneſs of ſir Chriſtopher's genius. So many great architects as were employed on St. Peter's have not left, upon the whole, a more perfect edifice than this work of a ſingle mind. The nobleſt temple, the largeſt palace, and the moſt ſumptuous hoſpital, in ſuch a kingdom as Britain, are all the works of the ſame hand. He reſtored London, and recorded its fall. He built about fifty parith churches, and deſigned the Monument.

and

and even religious and political diſputes contributed to the advancement of learning, by the unbounded liberty which the laws of England allow in ſpeculative matters, and which has been found highly advantageous in the promotion of true and valuable knowledge.

The miniſters of George I. were the patrons of erudition, and ſome of them were no mean proficients themſelves. George II. was himſelf no Mæcenas; yet his reign yielded to none of the preceding, in the numbers of learned and ingenious men it produced. The bench of biſhops was never known to be ſo well provided with able prelates as it was in the early years of his reign; a full proof that his nobility and miniſters were judges of literary qualifications. In other departments of erudition, the favour of the public generally ſupplied the coldneſs of the court. After the rebellion in the year 1745, when Mr. Pelham was conſidered as being firſt miniſter, this ſcreen between government and literature was in a great meaſure removed, and men of genius began then to taſte the royal bounty. Since that period, a great progreſs has been made in the polite arts in England. The Royal Academy has been inſtituted, ſome very able artiſts have ariſen, and the annual public exhibitions of painting and ſculpture have been extremely favourable to the arts, by promoting a ſpirit of emulation, and exciting a greater attention to works of genius of this kind among the public in general. But notwithſtanding theſe favourable circumſtances, the fine arts have been far from meeting with that public patronage, to which they have ſo juſt a claim. Few of our public edifices are adorned with paintings or with ſtatues. The ſculptors meet with little employment, nor is the hiſtorical painter much patroniſed; though the Britiſh artiſts of the preſent age have proved that their genius for the fine arts is equal to that of any other nation.

Beſides learning, and the fine arts in general, the Engliſh excel in what we call the learned profeſſions. Their courts of juſtice are adorned with greater abilities and virtues, perhaps, than thoſe which any other country can boaſt of. A remarkable inſtance of which occurs in the appointments, for the laſt 200 years, of their lord chancellors, who hold the higheſt and the moſt uncontrolable judicial ſeat in the kingdom; and yet it is acknowledged by all parties, that, during that time, their bench has remained unpolluted by corruption, or partial affections. The few inſtances that may be alleged to the contrary, fix no imputation of wilful guilt upon the parties. The great lord chancellor Bacon was cenſured indeed for corrupt practices; but malevolence itſelf does not ſay that he was guilty any farther than in too much indulgence to his ſervants. The caſe of one of his ſucceſſors is ſtill more favourable to his memory, as his cenſure reflects diſgrace only upon his enemies; and his lordſhip was, in the judgment of every man of candour and conſcience, fully acquitted. Even Jefferies, infernal as he was in his politics, never was accuſed of partiality in the cauſes that came before him as chancellor.

It muſt be acknowledged that neither pulpit nor bar eloquence have been ſufficiently ſtudied in England; but this is owing to the genius of the people, and their laws. The ſermons of their divines are often learned, and always ſound as to the practical and doctrinal part; for the many religious ſects in England require to be oppoſed rather by reaſoning than eloquence. An unaccountable notion has however prevailed even among ſome of the clergy themſelves, that the latter is incompatible with the former, as if the arguments of Cicero and Demoſthenes were weakened by thoſe powers of language with which they are adorned. A ſhort time perhaps may remove this prepoſſeſſion, and convince the clergy, as well as the laity, that true eloquence is the firſt and faireſt handmaid of argumentation. I do not, however, mean to inſinuate

that the preachers of the Engliſh church are deſtitute of the graces of elocution; ſo far from that, no clergy in the world can equal them in the purity and perſpicuity of language, though I think that if they conſulted more than they do the powers of elocution, they would preach with more effect. If the ſemblance of thoſe powers, coming from the mouths of ignorant enthuſiaſts, is attended with the amazing effects we daily ſee, what muſt not be the conſequence if they were exerted in reality, and ſupported with ſpirit and learning?

The laws of England are of ſo peculiar a caſt, that the ſeveral pleadings at the bar do not admit, or but very ſparingly, of the flowers of ſpeech; and I am apt to think that a pleading in the Ciceronian manner would make a ridiculous appearance in Weſtminſter hall. The Engliſh lawyers, however, though they deal little in eloquence, are well verſed in rhetoric and reaſoning.

Parliamentary ſpeaking not being bound down to that precedent which is required in the courts of law, no nation in the world can produce ſo many examples of true eloquence, as the Engliſh ſenate in its two houſes; witneſs the fine ſpeeches made by both parties in parliament in the reign of Charles I. and thoſe that have been printed ſince the acceſſion of the preſent family.

Medicine and ſurgery, botany, anatomy, chemiſtry, and all the arts or ſtudies for preſerving life, have been carried to a great degree of perfection by the Engliſh. The ſame may be ſaid of muſic, and theatrical exhibitions. Even agriculture and mechaniſm are now reduced in England to ſciences, and that too without any public encouragement but ſuch as is given by private noblemen and gentlemen, who aſſociate themſelves for that purpoſe. In ſhip-building, clock-work, and the various branches of cutlery, they ſtand unrivalled.

UNIVERSITIES.] I have already mentioned the two univerſities of Oxford and Cambridge, which have been the ſeminaries of more learned men than any in Europe, and ſome have ventured to ſay, than all other literary inſtitutions. It is certain that their magnificent buildings, which in ſplendour and architecture rival the moſt ſuperb royal edifices, the rich endowments, the liberal eaſe and tranquillity enjoyed by thoſe who inhabit them, ſurpaſs all the ideas which foreigners, who viſit them, conceive of literary ſocieties. So reſpectable are they in their foundations, that each univerſity ſends two members to the Britiſh parliament, and their chancellors and officers have a civil juriſdiction over their ſtudents, the better to ſecure their independency. Their colleges, in their revenues and buildings, exceed thoſe of many other univerſities.

In Oxford there are twenty colleges and five halls: the former are very liberally endowed, but in the latter the ſtudents chiefly maintain themſelves. This univerſity is of great antiquity; it is ſuppoſed to have been a conſiderable place even in the time of the Romans: and Camden ſays, that "wiſe antiquity did, even in the Britiſh age, conſecrate this place to the Muſes." It is ſaid to have been ſtyled an univerſity before the time of king Alfred; and the beſt hiſtorians admit, that this moſt excellent prince was only a reſtorer of learning here. Alfred built three colleges at Oxford; one for divinity, another for philoſophy, and a third for grammar.

The Univerſity of Cambridge conſiſts of twelve colleges, and four halls; but though they are diſtinguiſhed by different names, the privileges of the colleges and halls are in every reſpect the ſame.

The ſenate-houſe at Cambridge is a moſt elegant edifice, executed entirely in the Corinthian order, and is ſaid to have coſt ſixteen thouſand pounds. Trinity college library is alſo a very magnificent ſtructure;

and in Corpus Chriſti college library, is a valuable collection of ancient manuſcripts which were preſerved at the diſſolution of the monaſteries, and given to this college by archbiſhop Parker.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. The antiquities of England are either Britiſh, Roman, Saxon, Daniſh, or Anglo-Normannic; but theſe, excepting the Roman, throw no great light upon ancient hiſtory. The chief Britiſh antiquities are thoſe circles of ſtones, particularly that called Stonehenge in Wiltſhire, which probably were places of worſhip in the times of the Druids. Stonehenge is, by Inigo Jones, Dr. Stukely, and others, deſcribed as a regular circular ſtructure. The body of the work conſiſts of two circles and two ovals, which are thus compoſed: the upright ſtones are placed at three feet and a half diſtance from each other, and joined at the top by over-thwart ſtones, with tenons fitted to the mortoiſes in the uprights, for keeping them in their due poſition. Some of theſe ſtones are vaſtly large, meaſuring two yards in breadth, one in thickneſs, and above ſeven in height; others are leſs in proportion. The uprights are wrought a little with a chiſſel, and ſometimes tapered; but the tranſoms, or overthwart ſtones are quite plain. The outſide circle is near one hundred and eighty feet in diameter, between which and the next circle, there is a walk of three hundred feet in circumference, which has a ſurpriſing and awful effect upon the beholders.

Monuments of the ſame kind as that of Stonehenge are to be met with in Cumberland, Oxfordſhire, Cornwall, Devonſhire, and many other parts of England, as well as in Scotland, and the iſles, which have been already mentioned.

The Roman antiquities in England conſiſt chiefly of altars and monumental inſcriptions, which inſtruct us as to the legionary ſtations of the Romans in Britain, and the names of ſome of their commanders. The Roman military ways give us the higheſt idea of the civil as well as military policy of thoſe conquerors. Their veſtiges are numerous; one is mentioned by Leland, as beginning at Dover, and paſſing through Kent to London, from thence to St. Alban's, Dunſtable, Stratford, Towceſter, Littleburn, St. Gilbert's Hill, near Shrewſbury, then by Stratton, and ſo through the middle of Wales to Cardigan. The great Via Militaris called Hermen ſtreet, paſſed from London through Lincoln, where a branch of it, from Pontefract to Doncaſter, ſtrikes out to the Weſtward, paſſing through Tadcaſter to York, and from thence to Aldby, where it again joined Hermen-ſtreet. There would, however, be no end of deſcribing the veſtiges of the Roman roads in England, many of which ſerve as foundations to our preſent high ways. The great earl of Arundel, the celebrated Engliſh antiquary, had formed a noble plan for deſcribing thoſe which paſs through Suſſex and Surry towards London; but the civil war breaking out, put an end to the undertaking. The remains of many Roman camps are diſcernible all over England; one particularly, very little defaced, near Dorcheſter in Dorſetſhire, where alſo is a Roman amphitheatre. Their ſituations are generally ſo well choſen, and their fortifications appear to have been ſo complete, that there is ſome reaſon to believe that they were the conſtant habitations of the Roman ſoldiers in England; though it is certain, from the baths and teſſelated pavements that have been found in different parts, that their chief officers or magiſtrates lived in towns or villas. Roman walls have likewiſe been found in England; and, perhaps, upon the borders of Wales, many remains of their fortifications and caſtles are blended with thoſe of a later date; and it is difficult for the moſt expert architect to pronounce that ſome halls and courts are not entirely Roman.

The

The private cabinets of noblemen and gentlemen, as well as the public repoſitories, contain a vaſt number of Roman arms, coins, fibulæ, trinkets, and the like, which have been found in England; but the moſt amazing monument of the Roman power in England is the prætenture or wall of Severus, commonly called the Picts' wall, running through Northumberland and Cumberland; beginning at Tinmouth, and ending at Solway Frith, being about eighty miles in length. The wall at firſt conſiſted only of ſtakes and turf, with a ditch; but Severus built it with ſtone forts and turrets at proper diſtances, ſo that each might have a ſpeedy communication with the other; and it was attended all along by a deep ditch, or vallum, to the north, and a military highway to the ſouth.

The Saxon antiquities in England conſiſt chiefly in eccleſiaſtical edifices, and places of ſtrength. At Wincheſter is ſhown the round table of king Arthur, with the names of his knights. The antiquity of this table has been diſputed by Camden, and later writers, perhaps with reaſon; but if it be not Britiſh, it certainly is Saxon. The cathedral of Wincheſter ſerved as the burying-place of ſeveral Saxon kings, whoſe bones were collected together by biſhop Fox, in ſix large wooden cheſts. Many monuments of Saxon antiquity preſent themſelves all over the kingdom, though they are often not to be diſcerned from the Normannic; and the Britiſh Muſeum contains ſeveral ſtriking original ſpecimens of their learning. Many Saxon charters, ſigned by the king and his nobles, with a plain croſs inſtead of their names, are ſtill to be met with. The writing is neat and legible, and was always performed by a clergyman, who affixed the name and quality of every donor, or witneſs, to his reſpective croſs. The Daniſh erections in England are hardly diſcernible from the Saxon. The form of their camps is round, and they are generally built upon eminences; but their forts are ſquare.

All England is full of Anglo-Normannic monuments, which I chuſe to call ſo, becauſe, though the princes under whom they were raiſed were of Norman original, yet the expenſe was defrayed by Engliſhmen, with Engliſh money. York-minſter, and Weſtminſter-hall and abbey, are perhaps the fineſt ſpecimens to be found in Europe, of that Gothic manner which prevailed in building, before the recovery of the Greek and Roman architecture. All the cathedrals and old churches in the kingdom are more or leſs in the ſame taſte, if we except St. Paul's. In ſhort, thoſe erections are ſo common, that they ſcarcely deſerve the name of curioſities. It is uncertain whether the artificial excavations, found in ſome parts of England, are Britiſh, Saxon, or Norman. That under the old caſtle of Ryegate in Surry is very remarkable, and ſeems to have been deſigned for ſecreting the cattle and effects of the natives, in times of war and invaſion. It contains an oblong-ſquare hall, round which runs a bench, cut out of the ſame rock, for ſitting upon; and tradition ſays, that it was the room in which the barons of England met during the wars with king John. The rock itſelf is ſoft and very practicable; but it is hard to ſay where the excavation, which is continued in a ſquare paſſage, about ſix feet high, and four wide, terminates, becauſe the work is fallen in, in ſome places.

The natural curioſities of England are ſo various, that I can touch upon them only in general; as there is no end of deſcribing the ſeveral medicinal waters and ſprings which are to be found in every part of the country.

The Bath waters are famous through all the world, both for drinking and bathing. Spaws of the ſame kind are found at Scarborough, and other parts of Yorkſhire; at Tunbridge in Kent; Epſom and Dulwich

in Surry: and at Acton and Iſlington in Middleſex. There alſo are many remarkable ſprings, whereof ſome are impregnated either with ſalt, as that at Droitwich in Worceſterſhire; or ſulphur, as the famous well of Wigan in Lancaſhire; or bituminous matter, as that at Pitchford in Shropſhire. Others have a petrifying quality, as that near Lutterworth in Leiceſterſhire, and a dropping well in the Weſt-riding of Yorkſhire. And finally, ſome ebb and flow, as thoſe of the Peak in Derbyſhire, and Laywell near Torbay, whoſe waters riſe and fall ſeveral times in an hour. To theſe we may add that remarkable fountain near Richard's caſtle in Herefordſhire, commonly called Bonewell, which is generally full of ſmall bones, like thoſe of frogs or fiſh, though often cleared out. At Ancliff, near Wigan in Lancaſhire, is the famous burning well; the water is cold, neither has it any ſmell; yet there is ſo ſtrong a vapour of ſulphur iſſuing out with the ſtream, that, upon applying a light to it, the top of the water is covered with a flame, like that of burning ſpirits, which laſts ſeveral hours, and emits a heat that meat may be boiled over it. The fluid itſelf will not burn when taken out of the well *.

Derbyſhire is celebrated for many natural curioſities. The Mam Tor, or Mother Tower, is ſaid to be continually mouldering away, but never diminiſhes. The Elden Hole, about four miles from the ſame place; this is a chaſm in the ſide of a mountain, near ſeven yards wide, and fourteen long, diminiſhing in extent within the rock, but of what depth is not known. A plummet once drew 884 yards of line after it, whereof the laſt eighty were wet, without finding a bottom. The entrance of Poole's hole near Buxton, for ſeveral paces, is very low, but ſoon opens into a very lofty vault, like the inſide of a Gothic cathedral. The height is certainly very great, yet much ſhort of what ſome have aſſerted, who reckon it a quarter of a mile perpendicular, though in length it exceeds that dimenſion; a current of water, which runs along the middle, adds, by its ſounding ſtream, re-echoed on all ſides, very much to the aſtoniſhment of all who viſit this vaſt concave. The drops of water which hang from the roof, and on the ſides, have an amuſing effect; for they not only reflect numberleſs rays from the candles carried by the guides, but, as they are of a petrifying quality, they harden in ſeveral places into various forms, which, with the help of a ſtrong imagination, may paſs for lions, fonts, organs, and the like. The entrance into that natural wonder at Caſtleton, which is from its hideouſneſs named the Devil's Arſe, is wide at firſt, and upwards of thirty feet perpendicular. Several cottagers dwell under it, who ſeem in a great meaſure to ſubſiſt by guiding ſtrangers into the cavern, which is croſſed by four ſtreams of water, and then is thought impaſſable. The vault, in ſeveral places, makes a noble appearance, and is particularly beautiful by being chequered with various coloured ſtones.

Some ſpots of England are ſaid to have a petrifying quality. We are told, that near Whitby in Yorkſhire, are found certain ſtones, reſembling the folds and wreaths of a ſerpent; alſo other ſtones of ſeveral ſizes, and ſo exactly round, as if artificially made for cannon balls, which being broken do commonly contain the form and likeneſs of ſerpents, wreathed in circles, but generally without heads. In ſome parts of Glouceſterſhire, ſtones are found reſembling cockles, oyſters, and other teſtaceous marine animals. Thoſe curioſities, however, are often magnified by ignorance and credulity.

* This extraordinary heat has been found to proceed from a vein of coals, which has been ſince dug from under this well; at which time the uncommon warmth ceaſed.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. } This head is so very extensive, that I can only touch upon objects that may assist in giving the reader some idea of its importance, grandeur, or utility.

London *, the metropolis of the British empire, is the first in this division. It appears to have been founded between the reigns of Julius Cæsar and Nero, but by whom is uncertain; for we are told by Tacitus, that it was a place of great trade in Nero's time, and soon after became the capital of the island. It was first walled about with hewn stones and British bricks, by Constantine the Great, and the walls formed an oblong square, in compass about three miles, with seven principal gates. The same emperor made it a bishop's see; for it appears that the bishops of London and York, and another English bishop, were at the council of Arles, in the year 314: he also settled a mint in it, as is plain from some of his coins.

London, in its large sense, including Westminster, Southwark, and part of Middlesex, is a city of a very surprising extent, of prodigious wealth, and of the most extensive trade. This city, when considered with all its advantages, is now what ancient Rome once was; the seat of liberty, the encourager of arts, and the admiration of the whole world. London is the centre of trade; it has an intimate connection with all the counties in the kingdom; it is the grand mart of the nation, to which all parts send their commodities, from whence they are again sent back into every town in the nation, and to every part of the world. From hence innumerable carriages by land and water are constantly employed; and from hence arises the circulation in the national body, which renders every part healthful, vigorous, and in a prosperous condition; a circulation that is equally beneficial to the head and the most distant members. Merchants are here as rich as noblemen: witness their incredible loans to government; and there is no place in the world where the shops of tradesmen make such a noble and elegant appearance, or are better stocked.

It is situated on the banks of the Thames, a river which, though not the largest, is the richest and most commodious for commerce of any in the world; it being continually filled with fleets, sailing to or from the most distant climates; and its banks extend from London-bridge to Blackwall, almost one continued great magazine of naval stores, containing three large wet docks, 32 dry docks, and 33 yards for the building of ships for the use of the merchants, beside the places allotted for the building of boats and lighters; and the king's yards down the river, for the building of men of war. As this city is about sixty miles distant from the sea, it enjoys, by means of this beautiful river, all the benefits of navigation, without the danger of being surprised by foreign fleets, or of being annoyed by the moist vapours of the sea. It rises regularly from the water-side, and extending itself on both sides along its banks, reaches a prodigious length from east to west in a kind of amphitheatre towards the north, and is continued for near 20 miles on all sides, in a succession of magnificent villas, and populous villages, the country seats of gentlemen and tradesmen; whither the latter retire for the benefit of fresh air, and to relax their minds from the hurry of business. The regard paid by the legislature to the property of the subject, has hitherto prevented any bounds being fixed for its extension.

* London is situated in 51° 31′ north latitude, 400 miles south of Edinburgh, and 270 south east of Dublin; 180 miles west of Amsterdam, 210 north-west of Paris, 500 south-west of Copenhagen, 600 miles north-west of Vienna, 790 south-west of Stockholm, 800 north-east of Madrid, 820 north-west of Rome, 850 north-east of Lisbon, 1300 north-west of Constantinople, 1414 south-west of Moscow.

The irregular form of this city makes it difficult to aſcertain its extent. However, its length from eaſt to weſt, is generally allowed to be above ſeven miles, from Hyde-park corner to Poplar; and its breadth in ſome places three, in others two, and in others again not much above half a mile. Hence the circumference of the whole is almoſt 18 miles; or, according to a modern meaſurement, the extent of continued buildings, is 35 miles, two furlongs, and 39 roods. But it is much eaſier to form an idea of the large extent of a city ſo irregularly built, by the number of the people, who are computed to be near a million; and from the number of edifices devoted to the ſervice of religion.

Of theſe, beſides St. Paul's cathedral, and the collegiate church at Weſtminſter, here are 102 pariſh churches, and 69 chapels of the eſtabliſhed religion; 21 French proteſtant chapels; 11 chapels belonging to the Germans, Dutch, Danes, &c. 26 independent meetings; 34 preſbyterian meetings; 20 baptiſt meetings; 19 popiſh chapels, and meeting-houſes for the uſe of foreign ambaſſadors, and people of various ſects; and three Jews' ſynagogues. So that there are 305 places devoted to religious worſhip, in the compaſs of this vaſt pile of buildings, without reckoning the 21 out-pariſhes uſually included in the bills of mortality, and a great number of methodiſt tabernacles.

There are alſo in and near this city 100 alms-houſes; about 20 hoſpitals and infirmaries; 3 colleges; 10 public priſons; 15 fleſh-markets; 1 market for live cattle, 2 other markets more particularly for herbs; and 23 other markets for corn, coals, hay, &c. 15 inns of court, 27 public ſquares, beſides thoſe within ſingle buildings, as the Temple, &c. 3 bridges, 49 halls for companies, 8 public ſchools, called free-ſchools, and 131 charity-ſchools, which provide education for 5034 poor children; 207 inns, 447 taverns, 551 coffee-houſes; 5975 alehouſes; 1000 hackney-coaches; 400 ditto chairs; 7000 ſtreets, lanes, courts, and alleys, and 150,000 dwelling houſes, containing, as has been already obſerved, about 1,000,000 inhabitants, who, according to a late eſtimate, conſume annually the following articles of proviſions *.

Black cattle	98,244
Sheep and Lambs	711,123
Calves	194,760
Swine	186,932
Pigs	52,000
Poultry and wild fowl, innumerable	
Mackarel ſold at Billingſgate	14,740,000
Oyſters, buſhels	115,536
Small boats of cod, haddock, whiting, &c. over and above thoſe brought by land-carriage, and great quantities of river and ſalt-fiſh	1,398
Butter, pounds weight, about	16,000,000
Cheeſe, ditto, about	20,000,000
Gallons of milk	7,000,000
Barrels of ſtrong beer	1,172,494
Barrels of ſmall beer	798,495
Tons of foreign wines	3,044
Gallons of rum, brandy, and other diſtilled waters, above	11,000,000
Pounds weight of candles, above	11,000,000

* Neither of the ancient and famous cities of Nineveh, Babylon, and Rome had ever ſhipping or trade ſufficient to employ ſo many hands, nor were capable of furniſhing proviſions, firing, or other neceſſaries for their ſupport.

London

London-bridge was firſt built of ſtone in the reign of Henry II. about the year 1163, by a tax laid upon wool, which in the courſe of time gave riſe to the notion that it was built upon wool-packs: from that time it has undergone many alterations and improvements, particularly ſince the year 1756, when the houſes were taken down, and the whole rendered more convenient and beautiful. The paſſage for carriages is 31 feet broad, and 7 feet on each ſide for foot paſſengers. It croſſes the Thames where it is 915 feet broad, and has at preſent 19 arches of about 20 feet wide each; but the centre one is conſiderably larger.

Weſtminſter-bridge is reckoned one of the moſt complete and elegant ſtructures of the kind known in the world. It is built entirely of ſtone, and extended over the river at a place where it is 1,223 feet broad; which is above 300 feet broader than at London bridge. On each ſide is a fine baluſtrade of ſtone, with places of ſhelter from the rain. The width of the bridge is 44 feet, having on each ſide a fine foot-way for paſſengers. It conſiſts of 14 piers, and 13 large and two ſmall arches, all ſemicircular, that in the centre being 76 feet wide, and the reſt decreaſing four feet each from the other; ſo that the two leaſt arches of the 13 great ones are each 52 feet. It is computed that the value of 40,000l. in ſtone and other materials is always under water. This magnificent ſtructure was begun in 1738, and finiſhed 1750, at the expenſe of 389,000l. defrayed by the parliament.

Black-friars bridge falls nothing ſhort of that of Weſtminſter, either in magnificence or workmanſhip; but the ſituation of the ground on the two ſhores obliged the architect to employ elliptical arches; which, however, have a very fine effect; and many perſons even prefer it to Weſtminſter-bridge. This bridge was begun in 1760, and finiſhed in 1770, at the expenſe of 152,840l. to be diſcharged by a toll upon the paſſengers. It is ſituated almoſt at an equal diſtance between thoſe of Weſtminſter and London, commands a view of the Thames from the latter to Whitehall, and diſcovers the majeſty of St. Paul's in a very ſtriking manner.

The cathedral of St. Paul's is the moſt capacious, magnificent, and regular proteſtant church in the world. The length within is 500 feet; and its height, from the marble pavement to the croſs on the top of the cupola, is 340. It is built of Portland ſtone, according to the Greek and Roman orders, in the form of a croſs, after the model of St. Peter's at Rome, to which in ſome reſpects it is ſuperior. St. Paul's church is the principal work of ſir Chriſtopher Wren, and undoubtedly the only work of the ſame magnitude that ever was completed by one man. He lived to a great age, and finiſhed the building 37 years after he himſelf laid the firſt ſtone. It takes up ſix acres of ground, though the whole length of this church meaſures no more than the width of St. Peter's. The expenſe of rebuilding it, after the fire of London, was defrayed by a duty on coals, and is computed at a million ſterling.

Weſtminſter abbey, or the collegiate church of Weſtminſter, is a venerable pile of building, in the Gothic taſte. It was firſt built by Edward the Confeſſor; king Henry III. rebuilt it from the ground, and Henry VII. added a fine chapel to the eaſt end of it; this is the repoſitory of the deceaſed Britiſh kings and nobility; and here are alſo monuments erected to the memory of many great and illuſtrious perſonages, commanders by ſea and land, philoſophers, poets, &c. In the reign of queen Anne, 4000l. a year, out of the coal duty, was granted by parliament for keeping it in repair.

The inſide of the church of St. Stephen, Walbrook, is admired for its

lightneſs and elegance, and does honour to the memory of ſir Chriſtopher Wren. The ſame may be ſaid of the ſteeples of St. Mary-le-Bow, and St. Bride's, which are ſuppoſed to be the moſt complete in their kind of any in Europe, though artichecture has laid down no rules for ſuch erection. Few churches in and about London are without ſome beauty. The ſimplicity of the portico in Covent Garden is worthy the pureſt ages of ancient architecture. That of St. Martin's in the Fields would be noble and ſtriking, could it be ſeen from a proper point of view. Several of the new churches are built in an elegant taſte, and even ſome of the chapels have gracefulneſs and proportion to recommend them. The Banqueting-houſe at Whitehall is but a very ſmall part of a noble palace deſigned by Inigo Jones, for the royal reſidence; and as it now ſtands, under all its diſadvantages, its ſymmetry and ornaments are in the higheſt ſtyle and execution of architecture.

Weſtminſter-hall, though on the outſide it makes a mean and no very advantageous appearance, is a noble Gothic building, and is ſaid to be the largeſt room in the world, whoſe roof is not ſupported with pillars; it being 230 feet long, and 70 broad. The roof is the fineſt of its kind that can be ſeen. Here are held the coronation feaſts of our kings and queens; alſo the courts of chancery, king's-bench, and common-pleas, and above ſtairs, that of exchequer.

That beautiful column, called the monument, erected at the charge of the city, to perpetuate the memory of its being deſtroyed by fire, is juſtly worthy of notice. This column, which is of the Doric order, exceeds all the obeliſks and pillars of the ancients, it being 202 feet high, with a ſtair-caſe in the middle to aſcend to the balcony, which is about 30 feet ſhort of the top, from whence there are other ſteps, made for perſons to look out at the top of all, which is faſhioned like an urn, with a flame iſſuing from it. On the baſe of the monument, next the ſtreet, the deſtruction of the city, and the relief given to the ſufferers by Charles II. and his brother, are emblematically repreſented in bas relief. The north and ſouth ſides of the baſe have each a Latin inſcription, the one deſcribing its dreadful deſolation, and the other its ſplendid reſurrection; and on the eaſt ſide is an inſcription, ſhowing when the pillar was begun and finiſhed. The charge of erecting this monument, which was begun by ſir Chriſtopher Wren in 1671, and finiſhed by him in 1677, amounted to upward of 13,000l.

The Royal Exchange is a large and noble building, and is ſaid to have coſt above 80,000l.

The terrace in the Adelphi is a very fine piece of architecture, and has laid open one of the fineſt proſpects in the world.

We might here give a deſcription of the Tower, Bank of England, the New Treaſury, the Admiralty-office, and the Horſe-guards at Whitehall, the Manſion-houſe, or houſe of the Lord-mayor, the Cuſtom-houſe, Exciſe-office, India-houſe, and a vaſt number of other public buildings; beſide the magnificent edifices raiſed by our nobility; as lord Spencer's houſe, Marlborough-houſe, and Buckingham-houſe in St. James's-park; the earl of Cheſterfield's-houſe near Hyde-park; the Duke of Devonſhire's, and the late earl of Bath's, in Piccadilly; lord Shelburne's in Berkeley-ſquare; Northumberland-houſe in the Strand; the duke of Bedford's, and Montague-houſe *, in Bloomſbury; with a number of others

* The Britiſh Muſeum is depoſited in Montague-houſe. Sir Hans Sloane, bart. (who died in 1753) may not improperly be called the founder of the Britiſh Muſeum; for its being eſtabliſhed by parliament was only in conſequence of his leaving by will his

others of the nobility and gentry; but these would be sufficient to fill a large volume.

This great and populous city is happily supplied with abundance of fresh water, from the Thames and the New River; which is not only of inconceivable service to every family, but by means of fire-plugs every where dispersed, the keys of which are deposited with the parish officers, the city is in a great measure secured from the spreading of fire; for these plugs are no sooner opened, than there are vast quantities of water to supply the engines.

This plenty of water has been attended with another advantage; it has given rise to several companies, who insure houses and goods from fire; an advantage that is not be met with in any other nation on earth: the premium is small, and the recovery, in case of loss, is easy and certain. Every one of these offices keep a set of men in pay, who are ready at all hours to give their assistance in case of fire; and who are on all occasions extremely bold, dexterous, and diligent: but though all their labours should prove unsuccessful, the person who suffers by this devouring element, has the comfort that must arise from a certainty of being paid the value (upon oath) of what he has insured.

Before the conflagration in 1666, London (which, like most other great cities, had arisen from small beginnings) was totally inelegant, inconvenient, and unhealthy; of which latter misfortune many melancholy proofs are authenticated in history, and which, without doubt, proceeded from the narrowness of the streets, and the unaccountable projections of the buildings, that confined the putrid air, and, joined with other circumstances, such as the want of water, rendered the city seldom free from pestilential devastation. The fire which consumed the greatest part of the city, dreadful as it was to the inhabitants at that time, was productive of consequences which made ample amends for the losses sustained by individuals; a new city arose on the ruins of the old; but, though more regular, open, convenient, and healthful than the former, yet it by no means answered to the characters of magnificence or elegance, in many particulars; and it is ever to be lamented (such was the infatuation of

his noble collection of natural history, his large library, and his numerous curiosities, which cost him 50,000l. to the use of the public, on condition that the parliament would pay 20,000l. to his executors. To this collection were added the Cottonian library, the Harleian manuscripts, collected by the Oxford family, and purchased likewise by the parliament, and a collection of books given by the late major Edwards. His late majesty, in consideration of its great usefulness, was graciously pleased to add thereto the royal libraries of books and manuscripts collected by the several kings of England.

The Sloanian collection consists of an amazing number of curiosities; among which are the library, including books of drawings, manuscripts, and prints, amounting to about 50,000 volumes. Medals and coins, ancient and modern, 20,000. Cameos and intaglios about 700. Seals, 268. Vessels, &c. of agate, jasper, &c. 542. Antiquities, 1,125. Precious stones, agate, jasper, &c. 2,156. Metals, minerals, ores, &c. 2,725. Crystals, spars, &c. 1,864. Fossils, flints, stones, 1,275. Earths, sands, salts, 1,135. Bitumens, sulphurs, amber, &c. 399. Talcs, micæ, &c. 388. Corals, spunges, &c. 2,421. Testacea or shells, &c. 5,843. Echini, echinitæ, &c. 659. Asteriæi, trochi, entrochi, &c 241. Crustaceæ, crabs, lobsters, &c. 363. Stellæ marinæ, star-fishes, &c. 173. Fish, and their parts, &c. 1,555. Birds, and their parts, eggs, and the nests of different species, 1,172. Quadrupeds, &c. 1,886. Vipers, serpents, &c. 521. Insects, &c. 5,439. Vegetables, 12, 506. Hortus siccus, or volumes of dried plants, 334. Humani, as calculi, anatomical preparations, 756. Miscellaneous things natural, 2,098. Mathematical instruments, 55. A catalogue of all the above is written in a number of large volumes.

thoſe times) that the magnificent, elegant, and uſeful plan of the great Sir Chriſtopher Wren was totally diſregarded and ſacrificed to the mean and ſelfiſh views of private property; views which did irreparable injury to the citizens themſelves, and to the nation in general; for had that great architect's plan been followed, what has often been aſſerted, muſt have been the reſult; the metropolis of this kingdom would inconteſtably have been the moſt magnificent and elegant city in the univerſe, and of conſequence muſt, from the prodigious reſort of foreigners of diſtinction and taſte who would have viſited it, have become an inexhauſtible fund of riches to this nation. But as the deplorable blindneſs of that age has deprived us of ſo valuable an acquiſition, it is become abſolutely neceſſary that ſome efforts ſhould be made to render the preſent plan in a greater degree anſwerable to the character of the richeſt and moſt powerful people in the world.

The plan of London, in its preſent ſtate, will in many inſtances appear to very moderate judges, to be as injudicious a diſpoſition as can eaſily be conceived for a city of trade and commerce, on the border of ſo noble a river as the Thames. The wharfs and quays on its banks are extremely mean and inconvenient. And the want of regularity and uniformity in the ſtreets of the city of London, and the mean avenues to many parts of it, are alſo circumſtances that greatly leſſen the grandeur of its appearance. Many of the churches, and other public buildings, are likewiſe thruſt up in corners, in ſuch a manner as might tempt foreigners to believe that they were deſigned to be concealed. The improvements of the city of London for ſome years paſt have however been very great; and the new ſtreets, which are numerous, are in general more ſpacious, and built with greater regularity and elegance.

In the centre of the town, and upon the banks of the nobleſt river in Europe, was a chain of inelegant, ruinous houſes, known by the name of Durham-Yard, the Savoy, and Somerſet-Houſe. The firſt, being private property, engaged the notice of the ingenious Adams, who opened the way to a piece of ſcenery, which no city in Europe can equal. On the ſite of Durham-Yard was raiſed upon arches the pile of the Adelphi, celebrated for its enchanting proſpect, the utility of its wharfs, and its ſubterraneous apartments anſwering a variety of purpoſes of general benefit. Contiguous to the Adelphi ſtands the Savoy, the property of government, hitherto a nuiſance; and, adjoining to the Savoy, towards the Temple, ſtood Somerſet-Houſe, where, being the property of government alſo, a pile of buildings for public offices has been erected; and here, in a very magnificent edifice, are elegant apartments appropriated for the uſe of the Royal Society, the Royal Academy of painting and ſculpture, and the Society of Antiquaries.

Though a variety of circumſtances have hitherto been diſadvantageous to the embelliſhment of the metropolis, it muſt at the ſame time be acknowledged, that a ſpirit of improvement ſeems univerſal among all degrees of people. The very elegant and neceſſary method of paving and enlightening the ſtreets is felt in the moſt ſenſible manner by all ranks and degrees of people. The roads are continued for ſeveral miles around, upon the ſame model; and, excluſive of lamps regularly placed on each ſide at ſhort diſtances, are rendered more ſecure by watchmen ſtationed within call of each other. Nothing can appear more brilliant than thoſe lights, when viewed at a diſtance, eſpecially where the roads run acroſs; and even the principal ſtreets, ſuch as Pall-Mall, New Bond-ſtreet, Oxford-ſtreet, &c. convey an idea of elegance and magnificence.

Among

Among the liſt of improvements worthy notice, may be included the Six Clerks' Office, in Chancery-lane, and that very ſubſtantial building in the Old Bailey, which does honour to a people celebrated for their cleanlineſs and for their humanity. Here the unfortunate debtor will no longer be annoyed by the dreadful rattle of chains, or by the more horrid ſounds iſſuing from the lips of thoſe wretched beings who ſet defiance to all laws divine and human: and here alſo the offender, whoſe crime is not capital, may enjoy all the benefits of a free open air.

Windſor caſtle is the only fabric that deſerves the name of a royal palace in England; and that chiefly through its beautiful and commanding ſituation, which, with the form of its conſtruction, rendered it, before the introduction of artillery, impregnable. Hampton court was the favourite reſidence of king William. It is built in the Dutch taſte, and has ſome good apartments, and, like Windſor, lies near the Thames. Both theſe palaces have ſome good pictures; but nothing equal to the magnificent collection made by Charles I. and diſſipated in the time of the civil wars. The cartoons of Raphael, which for deſign and expreſſion are reckoned the maſter-pieces of painting, have by his preſent majeſty been removed from the gallery built for them at Hampton-court, to the Queen's palace, formerly Buckingham-houſe, in St. James's Park. The palace of St. James's is commodious, but has the air of a convent; and that of Kenſington, which was purchaſed from the Finch family by king William, is remarkable only for its gardens. Other houſes, though belonging to the king, are far from deſerving the name of royal.

Next to theſe, if not ſuperior, in magnificence and expenſive decorations, are many private ſeats in the neighbourhood of London, and all over the kingdom, wherein the amazing opulence of the Engliſh nation ſhines forth in its fulleſt point of view. Herein alſo the princely fortunes of the nobility are made ſubſervient to the fineſt claſſical taſte; witneſs the ſeats of the marquis of Buckingham and earl Pembroke. At the ſeat of the latter, more remains of antiquity are to be found, than are in the poſſeſſion of any other ſubject in the world.

But thoſe capital houſes of the Engliſh nobility and gentry have an excellency diſtinct from what is to be met with in any other part of the globe, which is, that all of them are complete without and within, all the apartments and members being ſuitable to each other, both in conſtruction and furniture, and all kept in the higheſt preſervation. It often happens, that the houſe, however elegant and coſtly, is not the principal object of the ſeat, which conſiſts in its hortulane and rural decorations, viſtas, opening landſcapes, temples, all of them the reſult of that enchanting art of imitating nature, and uniting beauty with magnificence.

It cannot be expected that I ſhould here enter into a particular detail of all the cities and towns of England, which would far exceed the limits of this work: I ſhall, therefore, only touch upon ſome of the moſt conſiderable.

Briſtol is reckoned the ſecond city in the Britiſh dominions, for trade, wealth, and the number of its inhabitants. It ſtands upon the north and ſouth ſides of the river Avon, and the two parts of the city are connected by a ſtone bridge. The city is not well built; but it is ſuppoſed to contain 15,000 houſes, and 95,000 inhabitants. Here is a cathedral and eighteen pariſh churches, beſides ſeven or eight other places of worſhip. On the north ſide of a large ſquare, called Queen's ſquare, which is adorned with rows of trees, and an equeſtrian ſtatue of William the Third, there is a cuſtom houſe, with a quay half a mile in length, ſaid

to

to be one of the moſt commodious in England, for ſhipping and landing of merchants' goods. The exchange, wherein the merchants and traders meet, is all of freeſtone, and is one of the beſt of its kind in Europe.

York is a city of great antiquity, pleaſantly ſituated on the river Ouſe; it is very populous, and ſurrounded with a good wall, through which are four gates, and five poſterns. Here are ſeventeen pariſh churches, and a very noble cathedral, or minſter, it being one of the fineſt Gothic buildings in England. It extends in length 525 feet, and in breadth 110 feet. The nave, which is the largeſt of any in the world, excepting that of St. Peter's church at Rome, is four feet and a half wider, and eleven feet higher, than that of St. Paul's cathedral at London. At the weſt end are two towers, connected and ſupported by an arch which forms the weſt entrance, and is reckoned the largeſt gothic arch in Europe. The windows are finely painted, and the front of the choir is adorned with ſtatues of all the kings of England from William the Norman to Henry VI. and here are thirty-two ſtalls, all of fine marble, with pillars, each conſiſting of one piece of alabaſter. Here is alſo a very neat gothic chapter-houſe. Near the cathedral is the aſſembly-houſe, which is a noble ſtructure, and which was deſigned by the late earl of Burlington. The city has a ſtone bridge of five arches over the river Ouſe.

The city of Exeter was for ſome time the ſeat of the Weſt Saxon kings; and the walls, which at this time incloſe it, were built by king Athelſtan, who encompaſſed it alſo with a ditch. It is one of the firſt cities in England, as well on account of its buildings and wealth, as its extent, and the number of its inhabitants. It has ſix gates, and, including its ſuburbs, is more than two miles in circumference. There are ſixteen pariſh churches, beſides chapels, and five large meeting houſes, within the walls of this city. The trade of Exeter, in ſerges, perpetuans, long-ells, druggets, kerſeys, and other woollen goods, is very great. Ships come up to this city by means of ſluices.

The city of Glouceſter ſtands on a pleaſant hill, with houſes on every deſcent, and is a clean well-built town, with the Severn on one ſide, a branch of which brings ſhips up to it. The cathedral here is an ancient and magnificent ſtructure; and there are alſo five pariſh churches.

Litchfield ſtands in a valley, three miles ſouth of the Trent, and is divided by a ſtream which runs into that river. The cathedral was founded in the year 1148: it was much damaged during the civil war, but was ſo completely repaired ſoon after the Reſtoration, that it is now one of the nobleſt Gothic ſtructures in England. Litchfield is thought to be the moſt conſiderable city in the north-weſt of England, except Cheſter.

Cheſter is a large, populous, and wealthy city, with a noble bridge, that has a gate at each end, and twelve arches, over the Dee, which falls into the ſea. It has eleven pariſhes, and nine well-built churches. The ſtreets are generally even and ſpacious, and croſſing one another in ſtraight lines, meet in the centre. The walls were firſt erected by Edelfleda, a Mercian lady, in the year 908, and join on the ſouth ſide of the city to the caſtle, from whence there is a pleaſant walk round the city upon the walls, except where it is intercepted by ſome of the towers over the gates; and from thence there is a proſpect of Flintſhire, and the mountains of Wales.

Warwick is a town of great antiquity, and appears to have been of eminence even in the time of the Romans. It ſtands upon a rock of free-ſtone, on the banks of the Avon: and a way is cut to it through the

rocks,

rocks, from each of the four cardinal points. The town is populous, and the ſtreets are ſpacious and regular, and all meet in the centre of the town.

The city of Coventry is large and populous: it has a handſome town-houſe, and twelve noble gates. Here is alſo a ſpacious market-place, with a croſs in the middle, 60 feet high, which is adorned with ſtatues of ſeveral kings of England as large as life.

Salisbury is a large, neat, and well-built city, ſituated in a valley, and watered by the Upper Avon on the weſt and ſouth, and by the Bourne on the eaſt. The ſtreets are generally ſpacious, and built at right angles. The cathedral, which was finiſhed in 1358, at the expenſe of above 26,000 pounds, is, for a Gothic building, the moſt elegant and regular in the kingdom. It is in the form of a lanthorn, with a beautiful ſpire of freeſtone in the middle, which is 410 feet high, being the talleſt in England. The length of the church is 478 feet, the breadth is 76 feet, and the height of the vaulting 80 feet. The church has a cloiſter, which is 150 feet ſquare, and of as fine workmanſhip as any in England. The chapter-houſe, which is an octagon, is 150 feet in circumference; and yet the roof bears all upon one ſmall pillar in the centre, ſo much too weak in appearance for the ſupport of ſuch a prodigious weight, that the conſtruction of this building is thought one of the greateſt curioſities in England.

The city of Bath took its name from ſome natural hot baths, for the medicinal waters of which, this place has been long celebrated, and much frequented. The ſeaſons for drinking the Bath-waters are the ſpring and autumn; the ſpring ſeaſon begins with April, and ends with June; the autumn ſeaſon begins with September and laſts to December; and ſome patients remain here all the winter. In the ſpring, this place is moſt frequented for health, and in the autumn for pleaſure, when at leaſt two thirds of the company, conſiſting chiefly of perſons of rank and fortune, come to partake of the amuſements of the place. In ſome ſeaſons there have been no leſs than 8000 perſons at Bath, beſides its inhabitants. Some of the buildings lately erected here are extremely elegant, particularly Queen's-ſquare, the North and South Parade, the Royal Forum, the Circus, and Creſcent.

Nottingham is pleaſantly ſituated on the aſcent of a rock, overlooking the river Trent, which runs parallel with it about a mile to the ſouth, and has been made navigable. It is one of the neateſt places in England, and has a conſiderable trade.

No nation in the world can ſhow ſuch dock-yards, and all conveniences for conſtruction and repairs of the royal navy, as Portſmouth (the moſt regular fortification in England), Plymouth (by far the beſt dock-yard), Chatham, Woolwich, and Deptford. The royal Hoſpital at Greenwich, for ſuperannuated ſeamen, is ſcarcely exceeded by any royal palace, for its magnificence and expenſe.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] This article is copious, and has been well diſcuſſed in former publications, many of which are maſterpieces of their kind. It is well known that commerce and manufactures have raiſed the Engliſh to be the firſt and moſt powerful people in the world. Hiſtorical reviews, on this head, would be tedious. It is ſufficient then to ſay, that it was not till the reign of Elizabeth that England began to feel her true weight in the ſcale of commerce. She planned ſome ſettlements in America, particularly Virginia, but left the expenſe attending them to be defrayed by her ſubjects; and indeed ſhe was too parſimonious to carry her own notions of trade into execution. James I entered

entered upon great and beneficial ſchemes for the Engliſh trade. The Eaſt India company owes to him their ſucceſs and exiſtence; and British America ſaw her moſt flouriſhing colonies riſe under him and his family. The ſpirit of commerce went hand in hand with that of liberty; and though the Stuarts were not friendly to the latter, yet, during the reigns of the princes of that family, the trade of the nation was greatly increaſed. It is not within our deſign to follow commerce through all her fluctuations and ſtates. This would be an idle attempt, and it has already taken up large volumes. The nature of a geographical work requires only a repreſentation of the preſent ſtate of commerce in every country; and, in this light, I flatter myſelf that I ſhall be able to treat of it with more preciſion than former writers upon the ſame ſubject.

The preſent ſyſtem of Engliſh politics may properly be ſaid to have taken riſe in the reign of queen Elizabeth. At this time the proteſtant religion was eſtabliſhed, which naturally allied us to the reformed ſtates, and made all the popiſh powers our enemies.

We began in the ſame reign to extend our trade, by which it became neceſſary for us alſo to watch the commercial progreſs of our neighbours, and, if not to incommode and obſtruct their traffic, to hinder them from impairing ours.

We then likewiſe ſettled colonies in America, which was become the great ſcene of European ambition; for, ſeeing with what treaſures the Spaniards were annually enriched from Mexico and Peru, every nation imagined that an American conqueſt or plantation would certainly fill the mother-country with gold and ſilver.

The diſcoveries of new regions, which were then every day made, the profit of remote traffic, and the neceſſity of long voyages, produced, in a few years, a great multiplication of ſhipping. The ſea was conſidered as the wealthy element; and, by degrees, a new kind of ſovereignty aroſe, called *naval dominion*.

As the chief trade of Europe, ſo the chief maritime power, was at firſt in the hands of the Portugueſe and Spaniards, who, by a compact to which the conſent of other princes was not aſked, had divided the newly-diſcovered countries between them: but the crown of Portugal having fallen to the king of Spain, or being ſeized by him, he was maſter of the ſhipping of the two nations, with which he kept all the coaſts of Europe in alarm, till the armada he had raiſed at a vaſt expenſe for the conqueſt of England, was deſtroyed; which put a ſtop, and almoſt an end, to the naval power of the Spaniards.

At this time the Dutch, who were oppreſſed by the Spaniards, and feared yet greater evils than they felt, reſolved no longer to endure the inſolence of their maſters; they therefore revolted, and after a ſtruggle in which they were aſſiſted by the money and forces of Elizabeth, erected an independent and powerful commonwealth.

When the inhabitants of the Low Countries had formed their ſyſtem of government, and ſome remiſſion of the war gave them leiſure to form ſchemes for future proſperity, they eaſily perceived that, as their territories were narrow, and their numbers ſmall, they could preſerve themſelves only by that power which is the conſequence of wealth; and that by a people, whoſe country produced only the neceſſaries of life, wealth was not to be acquired but from foreign dominions, and by tranſportation of the products of one country into another.

From this neceſſity, thus juſtly eſtimated, aroſe a plan of commerce, which was for many years proſecuted with an induſtry and ſucceſs perhaps never ſeen in the world before; and by which the poor tenants of

mud-walled villages and impaſſable bogs erected themſelves into high and mighty ſtates, who ſet the greateſt monarchs at defiance, whoſe alliance was courted by the proudeſt, and whoſe power was dreaded by the fierceſt nations. By the eſtabliſhment of this ſtate, there aroſe to England a new ally, and a new rival.

When queen Elizabeth entered upon the government, the cuſtoms produced only 36,000l. a year; at the Reſtoration, they were let to farm for 400,000l. and produced conſiderably above double that ſum before the Revolution. The people of London, before we had any plantations, and when our trade was inconſiderable, were computed at about 100,000; at the death of queen Elizabeth, they were increaſed to 150,000, and are now above ſix times that number. In thoſe days we had not only naval ſtores, but ſhips, from our neighbours. Germany furniſhed us with all things made of metal, even to nails; wine, paper, linen, and a thouſand other things, came from France. Portugal furniſhed us with ſugars: all the produce of America was poured upon us from Spain; and the Venetians and Genoeſe retailed to us the commodities of the Eaſt Indies at their own price. In ſhort, the legal intereſt of money was twelve per cent. and the common price of our land, ten or twelve years' purchaſe. We may add, that our manufactures were few, and thoſe but indifferent; the number of Engliſh merchants very ſmall; and our ſhipping much inferior to what lately belonged to the American colonies.

Great Britain is, of all other countries, the moſt proper for trade; as well from its ſituation as an iſland, as from the freedom and excellency of its conſtitution, and from its natural products, and conſiderable manufactures. For exportation, our country produces many of the moſt ſubſtantial and neceſſary commodities; as butter, cheeſe, corn, cattle, wool, iron, lead, tin, copper, leather, copperas, pit-coal, alum, ſaffron, &c. Our corn ſometimes preſerves other countries from ſtarving. Our horſes are the moſt ſerviceable in the world, and highly valued by all nations for their hardineſs, beauty, and ſtrength. With beef, mutton, pork, poultry, biſcuit, we victual not only our own fleets, but many foreign veſſels that come and go. Our iron we export manufactured in great guns, carcaſes, bombs, &c. Prodigious, and almoſt incredible is the value likewiſe of other goods from hence exported, viz. hops, flax, hemp, hats, ſhoes, houſehold-ſtuff, ale, beer, red-herrings, pilchards, ſalmon, oyſters, liquorice, watches, ribbands, toys, &c.

There is ſcarcely a manufacture in Europe but what is brought to great perfection in England; and therefore it is perfectly unneceſſary to enumerate them all. The woollen manufacture is the moſt conſiderable, and exceeds in goodneſs and quantity that of any other nation. Hardware is another capital article: locks, edge-tools, guns, ſwords, and other arms, exceed any thing of the kind; houſehold utenſils of braſs, iron, and pewter, alſo are very great articles; and our clocks and watches are in great eſteem. There are but few manufactures in which we are defective. In thoſe of lace and paper we do not ſeem to excel, though they are greatly advancing; we import much more than we ſhould, if the duties on Britiſh paper were taken off. As to foreign traffic, the woollen manufacture is the great foundation and ſupport of it.

The American colonies are the objects which would naturally have firſt preſented themſelves, before the unhappy conteſt between them and the mother country commenced; but as a ſeparation hath taken place, and no commercial treaty is as yet eſtabliſhed, little can now be ſaid of the treaty between Great Britain and America.

The

The principal islands belonging to the English in the West Indies, are Jamaica, Barbadoes, St. Christopher's, Grenada, Antigua, St. Vincent, Dominica, Anguilla, Nevis, Montserrat, the Bermudas or Somers' Islands, and the Bahama or Lucayan Islands in the Atlantic ocean.

The English trade with their West India Islands consists chiefly in sugars, rum, cotton, logwood, cocoa, coffee, pimento, ginger, indigo, materials for dyers, mahogany and manchineel planks, drugs and preserves; for these, the exports from England are osnaburgs, a coarse kind of linen, with which the West Indians now clothe their slaves; linen of all sorts, with broad cloth and kerseys, for the planters, their overseers and families; silks and stuffs for their ladies and household servants; hats; red caps for their slaves of both sexes; stockings and shoes of all sorts; gloves and millinery ware, and perukes; laces for linen, woollen, and silks; strong beer, pale beer, pickles, candles, butter, and cheese; iron ware, as saws, files, axes, hatches, chissels, adzes, hoes, mattocks, gouges, planes, augers, nails; lead, powder, and shot; brass and copper wares; toys, coals, and pantiles; cabinet wares, snuffs, and in general whatever is raised or manufactured in Great Britain; also negroes from Africa, and all sorts of India goods.

The trade of England to the East Indies constitutes one of the most stupendous political as well as commercial machines, that is to be met with in history. The trade itself is exclusive, and lodged in a company, which has a temporary monopoly of it, in consideration of money advanced to the government. Without entering into the history of the East India trade within these twenty years past, and the company's concerns in that country, it is sufficient to say, that, besides their settlements on the coast of India, which they enjoy under certain restrictions by act of parliament, they have, through the various internal revolutions which have happened in Indostan, and the ambition or avarice of their servants and officers, acquired such territorial possessions, as render them the most formidable commercial republic (for so it may be called in its present situation) that has been known in the world ever since the demolition of Carthage. Their revenues are only known, and that but imperfectly, to the directors of the company, who are chosen by the proprietors of the stock; but it has been publicly affirmed, that they amount annually to above three millions and a half sterling. The expenses of the company in forts, fleets, and armies, for maintaining those acquisitions, are certainly very great: but after these are defrayed, the company not only cleared a vast sum, but was able to pay to the government four hundred thousand pounds yearly for a certain time, partly by way of indemnification for the expenses of the public in protecting the company, and partly as a tacit tribute for those possessions that are territorial and not commercial. This republic, therefore, cannot be said to be independent; and it is hard to say what form it may take, when the term of the bargain with the government is expired. For many years past, the company's servants abroad have enriched and served themselves more than the company or the republic.

This company exports to the East Indies all kinds of woollen manufacture, all sorts of hard ware, lead, bullion, and quicksilver. Their imports consist of gold, diamonds, raw-silks, drugs, tea, pepper, arrack, porcelain or China ware, salt-petre for home consumption; and of wrought silks, muslins, callicoes, cottons, and all the woven manufactures of India, for exportation to foreign countries. I shall now proceed to a concise view of the English trade to other countries, according to the latest and most authentic account.

To Turkey, England sends, in her own bottoms, woollen cloths, tin, lead,

lead, and iron, hardware, iron utenſils, clocks, watches, verdigris, ſpices, cochineal, and logwood. She imports from thence raw-ſilks, carpets, ſkins, dying drugs, cotton, fruits, medicinal drugs, coffee, and ſome other articles. Formerly, the balance of this trade was about 500,000l. annually, in favour of England. The Engliſh trade was afterwards diminiſhed through the practices of the French; but the Turkey trade at preſent is at a very low ebb with the French as well as the Engliſh.

England exports to Italy woollen goods of various kinds, peltry, leather, lead, tin, fiſh, and Eaſt India goods; and brings back raw and thrown ſilk, wines, oil, ſoap, olives, oranges, lemons, pomegranates, dried fruits, colours, anchovies, and other articles of luxury: the balance of this trade, to England, is annually about 200,000l.

To Spain, England ſends all kinds of woollen goods, leather, tin, lead, fiſh, corn, iron and braſs manufactures, haberdaſhery wares, aſſortments of linen from Germany and elſewhere, for the American colonies; and receives, in return, wines, oils, dried fruits, oranges, lemons, olives, wool, indigo, cochineal, and other dying drugs, colours, gold and ſilver coin.

Portugal formerly was, upon commercial accounts, the favourite ally of England, whoſe fleets and armies have more than once ſaved her from deſtruction. England ſends to this country almoſt the ſame kind of merchandiſes as to Spain, and receives in return vaſt quantities of wines, with oils, ſalt, dried and moiſt fruits, dying drugs, and gold coin.

The treaty of commerce between England and France has been eſteemed ſo bold a meaſure, and its future operation ſo variouſly repreſented, that little can be hazarded on conjecture, and very little is known from experience.

England ſends to Flanders, ſerges, flannels, tin, lead, ſugars, and tobacco; and receives, in return, laces, linen, cambrics, and other articles of luxury, by which England loſes upon the balance 250,000l. ſterling yearly. To Germany England ſends cloths and ſtuffs, tin, pewter, ſugars, tobacco, and Eaſt India merchandiſe; and brings thence vaſt quantities of linen, thread, goat-ſkins, tinned plates, timbers for all uſes, wines, and many other articles. Before the late war, the balance of this trade was thought to be 500,000l. annually, to the prejudice of England: but that ſum is now greatly reduced, as moſt of the German princes find it their intereſt to clothe their armies in Engliſh manufactures. I have already mentioned the trade with Denmark, Norway, Sweden, and Ruſſia, which formerly was againſt England; but the balance was lately vaſtly diminiſhed by the great improvements of her American colonies, in raiſing hemp, flax, making pot-aſhes, iron-works, and tallow, all which uſed to be furniſhed to her by the northern powers. The goods exported to Poland, chiefly by the way of Dantzick, are many, and the duties upon them low. Many articles are ſent there, for which there is no longer any demand in other countries. Poland conſumes large quantities of our woollen goods, hard-ware, lead, tin, ſalt, ſea-coal, &c. and the export of manufactured tobacco is greater to Poland than to any other country. The balance of trade may be eſtimated much in our favour.

To Holland, England ſends an immenſe quantity of many ſorts of merchandiſe; ſuch as all kinds of woollen goods, hides, corn, coals, Eaſt India and Turkey commodities, tobacco, tar, ſugar, rice, ginger, and other American productions; and makes return in fine linen, lace, cambrics, thread, tapes, incle, madder, boards, drugs, whalebone, train-oil, toys, and many other things; and the balance is uſually ſuppoſed to be much in favour of England.

The acquiſitions which the Engliſh made upon the coaſt of Guinea, particularly their ſettlement at Senegal, opened new ſources of commerce with Africa. The French, when in poſſeſſion of Senegal, traded there for gold, ſlaves, hides, oſtrich-feathers, bees'-wax, millet, ambergris, and above all, for that uſeful commodity, gum Senegal, which was monopoliſed by them and the Dutch, and probably will again, as Senegal is now delivered up to France by the late treaty of peace. At preſent, England ſends to the coaſt of Guinea ſundry ſorts of coarſe woollen and linen, iron, pewter, braſs, and hardware manufactures, lead, ſhot, ſwords, knives, fire-arms, gunpowder, and glaſs manufactures. And, beſides its drawing no money out of the kingdom, it lately ſupplied the American colonies with negro ſlaves, amounting in number to above 100,000 annually. The other returns are in gold-duſt, gum, dying and other drugs, red-wood, Guinea-grains, and ivory.

To Arabia, Perſia, China, and other parts of Aſia, England ſends much foreign ſilver coin and bullion, and ſundry Engliſh manufactures of woollen goods, and of lead, iron, and braſs; and brings home from thoſe remote regions, muſlins and cottons of many various kinds, callicoes, raw and wrought ſilk, chintz, teas, porcelain, gold-duſt, coffee, ſalt-petre, and many other drugs. And ſo great a quantity of thoſe various merchandiſes are exported to foreign European nations, as more than abundantly compenſates for all the ſilver bullion which England carries out.

During the infancy of commerce with foreign parts, it was judged expedient to grant excluſive charters to particular bodies or corporations of men; hence the Eaſt India, South Sea, Hudſon's Bay, Turkey, Ruſſia, Royal African companies; but the trade to Turkey, Ruſſia, and Africa, is now laid open, though the merchant who propoſes to trade thither, muſt become a member of the company, be ſubject to their laws and regulations, and advance a ſmall ſum at admiſſion, for the purpoſe of ſupporting conſuls, forts, &c.

With regard to the general account of England's foreign balance, the exports have been computed at ſeven millions ſterling, and its imports at five, of which above one million is re-exported; ſo that if this calculation be true, England gains, annually, three millions ſterling in trade; but this is a point upon which the moſt experienced merchants, and ableſt calculators, differ.

Yet our foreign trade does not amount to one-ſixth part of the inland; the annual produce of the natural products and manufactures of England amounting to above forty-two millions. The gold and ſilver of England is received from Portugal, Spain, Jamaica, the American colonies, and Africa: but great part of this gold and ſilver we again export to Holland, and the Eaſt Indies; and it is ſuppoſed that two-thirds of all the foreign traffic of England is carried on in the port of London.

We ſhall conclude this account of our trade, with the following comparative view of ſhipping, which, till a better table can be formed, may have its uſes.

If the ſhipping of Europe be divided into twenty parts, then,

Great Britain, &c. is computed to have	6
The United Provinces	6
Denmark, Sweden, and Ruſſia	2
The trading cities of Germany, and the Auſtrian Netherlands	1
France	2
Spain and Portugal	2
Italy, and the reſt of Europe	1

Our

Our bounds will not afford room to enter into a particular detail of the places where thoſe Engliſh manufactures, which are mentioned in the above account, are fabricated; a few general ſtrictures, however, may be proper.

Cornwall and Devonſhire ſupply tin and lead; and woollen manufactures are common to almoſt all the weſtern counties. Dorſetſhire makes cordage for the navy, feeds an incredible number of ſheep, and has large lace-manufactures. Somerſetſhire, beſides furniſhing lead, copper, and lapis calaminaris, has large manufactures of bone-lace, ſtockings, and caps. Briſtol is ſaid by ſome to employ 2000 maritime veſſels of all ſizes, coaſters as well as ſhips employed in foreign voyages: it has many very important manufactures; its glaſs bottle, and drinking glaſs, one alone occupying fifteen large houſes: its braſs-wire manufactures are alſo very conſiderable. Vaſt manufactures of all kinds (glaſs, jewellery, clocks, watches, and cutlery, in particular) are carried on in London, and its neighbourhood; the gold and ſilver manufactures of London, through the encouragement given them by the court and the nobility, already equal, if they do not exceed, thoſe of any country in Europe. Colcheſter is famous for its manufactures of baize and ſerges; and alſo Exeter for ſerges and long ells; and Norwich for its excellent ſtuffs, camblets, druggets, and ſtockings. Birmingham, though no corporation, is one of the largeſt and moſt populous towns in England, and carries on an amazing trade in excellent and ingenious hardware manufactures, particularly ſnuff and tobacco boxes, buttons, ſhoe-buckles, etwees, and many other ſorts of ſteel and braſs wares; it is here, and in Sheffield, which is famous for cutlery, that the true genius of Engliſh art and induſtry is to be ſeen; for ſuch are their excellent inventions for fabricating hard wares, that they can afford them for a fourth part of the price at which other nations can furniſh the ſame of an inferior kind: the cheapneſs of coals and all neceſſaries, and the conveniency of ſituation, no doubt, contribute greatly to this.

The northern counties of England carry on a prodigious trade in the coarſer and ſlighter woollen manufactures; witneſs thoſe of Halifax, Leeds, Wakefield, aud Richmond; and, above all, Mancheſter, which, by its variety of beautiful cottons, dimities, ticken, checks, and the like ſtuffs, is become a large and populous place, though only a village, and its higheſt magiſtrate a conſtable. I might mention here many other manufacturing towns and places of England, each of which is noted for ſome particular commodity: but the detail would become too bulky. I muſt not however diſmiſs this head, without obſerving the beautiful porcelain and earthen ware that have of late years been manufactured in different places of England, particularly in Worceſterſhire and Staffordſhire. The Engliſh carpets, eſpecially thoſe of Axminſter, Wilton, and Kidderminſter, though but a late manufacture, greatly excel in beauty any imported from Turkey, and are extremely durable; and conſequently are a vaſt ſaving to the nation. Paper, which till very lately was imported in vaſt quantities from France and Holland, is now made in every corner of the kingdom, and is a moſt neceſſary as well as beneficial manufacture. The parliament, of late, has given encouragement for reviving the manufacture of ſalt-petre, which was firſt attempted in England by ſir Walter Raleigh, but was dropt afterwards in favour of the Eaſt India company. The ſucceſs of ſuch an undertaking would be of immenſe benefit, as well as ſecurity to the nation.

After all that has been ſaid on this head, the ſeats of manufactures, and conſequently of trade, in England, are fluctuating; they will

always follow thoſe places where living is cheap and taxes are eaſy: for this reaſon they have been obſerved of late to remove towards the northern counties, where proviſions are in plenty, and the land-tax very low; add to this, that probably, in a few years, the inland navigations, which are opening in many parts of England, will make vaſt alterations as to its internal ſtate.

A SHORT VIEW *of the* STOCKS, *or* PUBLIC FUNDS *in* ENGLAND, *with an* HISTORICAL ACCOUNT *of the* EAST INDIA, *the* BANK, *and the* SOUTH SEA COMPANIES.

In order to give a clear idea of the money-tranſactions of the ſeveral companies, it is proper we ſhould ſay ſomething of money in general, and particularly of paper-money, and the difference between that and the current ſpecie. Money is the ſtandard of the value of all the neceſſaries and accommodations of life; and paper-money is the repreſentative of that ſtandard to ſuch a degree, as to ſupply its place, and to anſwer all the purpoſes of gold and ſilver coin. Nothing is neceſſary to make this repreſentative of money ſupply the place of ſpecie, but the credit of that office or company who delivers it; which credit conſiſts in its always being ready to turn it into ſpecie whenever required. This is exactly the caſe of the Bank of England; the notes of this company are of the ſame value as the current coin, as they may be turned into it whenever the poſſeſſor pleaſes. From hence, as notes are a kind of money, the counterfeiting them is puniſhed with death, as well as coining.

The method of depoſiting money in the Bank, and exchanging it for notes (though they bear no intereſt), is attended with many conveniencies, as they are not only ſafer than money in the hands of the owner himſelf, but as the notes are more portable, and capable of a much more eaſy conveyance, ſince a bank note for a very large ſum may be ſent by the poſt, and, to prevent the deſigns of robbers, may, without damage, be cut in two, and ſent at two ſeveral times. Or bills, called Bank-poſt-bills, may be had by application to the Bank, which are particularly calculated to prevent loſſes by robberies, they being made payable to the order of the perſon who takes them out, at a certain number of days after ſight; which gives an opportunity to ſtop bills at the Bank, if they ſhould be loſt, and prevents their being ſo eaſily negotiated by ſtrangers as common bank-notes are: and whoever conſiders the hazard, the expenſe, and trouble there would be in ſending large ſums of gold and ſilver to and from diſtant places, muſt alſo conſider this as a very ſingular advantage. Beſides which, another benefit attends them; for if they are deſtroyed by time, or other accident, the Bank will, on oath being made of ſuch accident, and ſecurity being given, pay the money to the perſon who was in poſſeſſion of them.

Bank-notes differ from all kinds of ſtock in theſe three particulars: 1. They are always of the ſame value. 2. They are paid off without being transferred; and, 3. They bear no intereſt; while *ſtocks* are a ſhare in a company's fund, bought without any condition of having the principal returned. *India-bonds* indeed (by ſome perſons, though erroneouſly, denominated ſtock) are to be excepted, they being made payable at ſix months' notice, either on the ſide of the company, or of the poſſeſſor.

By the word STOCK, was originally meant a particular ſum of money contributed to the eſtabliſhing a fund to enable a company to carry on a certain trade, by means of which the perſon became a partner in that trade, and received a ſhare in the profit made thereby, in proportion to the

money employed. But this term has been extended farther, though improperly, to ſignify any ſum of money which has been lent to the government, on condition of receiving a certain intereſt till the money is repaid, and which makes a part of the national debt. As the ſecurity both of the government and the public companies is eſteemed preferable to that of any private perſon; as the ſtocks are negotiable, and may be ſold at any time; and as the intereſt is always punctually paid when due; ſo they are thereby enabled to borrow money on a lower intereſt than what might be obtained from lending it to private perſons, where there is often ſome danger of loſing both principal and intereſt.

But as every capital ſtock or fund of a company is raiſed for a particular purpoſe, and limited by government to a certain ſum, it neceſſarily follows, that when that fund is completed, no ſtock can be bought of the company; though ſhares, already purchaſed, may be transferred from one perſon to another. This being the caſe, there is frequently a great diſproportion between the original value of the ſhares, and what is given for them when transferred; for if there are more buyers than ſellers, a perſon, who is indifferent about ſelling, will not part with his ſhare without a conſiderable profit to himſelf: and, on the contrary, if many are diſpoſed to ſell, and few inclined to buy, the value of ſuch ſhares will naturally fall, in proportion to the impatience of thoſe who want to turn their ſtock into ſpecie.

Theſe obſervations may ſerve to give our readers ſome idea of the nature of that unjuſtifiable and diſhoneſt practice called *Stock-jobbing*, the myſtery of which conſiſts in nothing more than this: the perſons concerned in that practice, who are denominated Stock-jobbers, make contracts to buy or ſell, at a certain diſtant time, a certain quantity of ſome particular ſtock; againſt which time they endeavour, according as their contract is, either to raiſe or lower ſuch ſtock, by ſpreading rumours, and fictitious ſtories, in order to induce people either to ſell out in a hurry, and conſequently cheap, if they are to deliver ſtock; or to become unwilling to ſell it, and conſequently to make it dearer, if they are to receive ſtock.

The perſons who make theſe contracts are not in general poſſeſſed of any real ſtock; and when the time comes that they are to receive or deliver the quantity they have contracted for, they only receive or pay ſuch a ſum of money as makes the difference between the price the ſtock was at when they made the contract, and the price it happens to be at when the contract is fulfilled; and it is no uncommon thing for perſons not worth 100l. to make contracts for the buying or ſelling 100,000l. ſtock. In the language of Exchange-Alley, the buyer is, in this caſe, called the Bull, and the ſeller the Bear; one is for raiſing or toſſing up, and the other for lowering or trampling upon the ſtock.

Beſides theſe, there is another ſet of men, who, though of a higher rank, may properly enough come under the ſame denomination. Theſe are the great monied men, who are dealers in ſtock, and contractors with the government whenever any money is to be borrowed. Theſe, indeed, are not fictitious but real buyers and ſellers of ſtock; but by raiſing falſe hopes, or creating groundleſs fears, by pretending to buy or ſell large quantities of ſtock on a ſudden, by uſing the forementioned ſet of men as their inſtruments, and other like practices, they are enabled to raiſe or fall ſtocks one or two per cent. at pleaſure.

However, the real value of one ſtock above another, on account of its being more profitable to the proprietors, or any thing that will really, or only in imagination, affect the credit of a company, or endanger the

government by which that credit is ſecured, muſt naturally have a conſiderable effect on the ſtocks. Thus, with reſpect to the intereſt of the proprietors, a ſhare in the ſtock of a trading company, which produces 5l. or 6l. per cent. per annum, muſt be more valuable than an annuity with government ſecurity, that produces no more than 3l. or 4l. per cent. per annum: and conſequently ſuch ſtock muſt ſell at a higher price than ſuch an annuity. Though it muſt be obſerved, that a ſhare in the ſtock of a trading company, producing 5l. or 6l. per cent. per annum, will not fetch ſo much money at market as a government annuity producing the ſame ſum, becauſe the ſecurity of the company is not reckoned equal to that of the government, and the continuance of their paying ſo much per annum is more precarious, as their dividend is, or ought to be, always in proportion to the profits of their trade.

As the ſtocks of the Eaſt India, the Bank, and the South Sea companies, are diſtinguiſhed by different denominations, and are of a very different nature, we ſhall give a ſhort hiſtory of each of them, together with an account of the different ſtocks each is poſſeſſed of, beginning with the Eaſt India company, as the firſt eſtabliſhed.

EAST INDIA COMPANY.] We have already given ſome account of this company, as being the capital commercial object in England. The firſt idea of it was formed in queen Elizabeth's time; but it has ſince admitted of vaſt alterations. Its ſhares, or ſubſcriptions, were originally only 50l. ſterling, and its capital only 369,891l. 5s. but the directors having a conſiderable dividend to make in 1676, it was agreed to join the profits to the capital, by which the ſhares were doubled, and conſequently each became of 100l. value, and the capital 739,782l. 10s. to which capital, if 963,639l. the profits of the company to the year 1685, be added, the whole ſtock will be found to be 1,703,102l. Though the eſtabliſhment of this company was vindicated in the cleareſt manner by ſir Joſiah Child, and other able advocates, yet the partiality which the duke of York, afterwards James II. had for his favourite African trade, the loſſes it ſuſtained in wars with the Dutch, and the revolutions which had happened in the affairs of Indoſtan, damped the ardour of the people to ſupport it; ſo that at the time of the revolution, when the war broke out with France, it was in a very indifferent ſituation. This was in a great meaſure owing to its having no parliamentary ſanction, whereby its ſtock often ſold for one half leſs than it was really worth; and it was reſolved that a new company ſhould be erected under the authority of parliament.

The oppoſition given to all the public-ſpirited meaſures of king William, by faction, rendered this propoſal a matter of vaſt difficulty; but at laſt, after many parliamentary inquiries, the new ſubſcription prevailed; and the ſubſcribers, upon advancing two millions to the public at 8 per cent. obtained an act of parliament in their favour. The old company, however, retained a vaſt intereſt both in the parliament and nation; and the act being found in ſome reſpects defective, ſo violent a ſtruggle between the two companies aroſe, that, in the year 1702, they were united by an indenture tripartite. In the year 1708, the yearly fund of 8 per cent. for two millions, was reduced to 5 per cent. by a loan of 1,200,000l. to the public, without an additional intereſt; for which conſideration the company obtained a prolongation of its excluſive privileges; and a new charter was granted to them, under the title of "The United Company of Merchants trading to the Eaſt Indies." Its excluſive right of trade was prolonged from time to time; and a farther ſum was lent by the company in 1730; by which, though the company's privileges were extended for thirty-three years, yet the intereſt of their capital, which then

amounted

amounted to 3,190,000l. was reduced to 3 per cent. and called the India 3 per cent. annuities.

Thoſe annuities are different from the trading ſtock of the company, the proprietors of which, inſtead of receiving a regular annuity, have, according to their different ſhares, a dividend of the profits ariſing from the company's trade: and that dividend riſes or falls according to the circumſtances of the company, either real, or, as is too often the caſe, pretended. A proprietor of ſtock to the amount of 500l. formerly had, but now of 1000l. whether man or woman, native or foreigner, has a right to be a manager, and to give a vote in the general council. Two thouſand pounds is the qualification for a director: the directors are twenty-four in number, including the chairman, and deputy-chairman, who may be re-elected in turn, ſix a year, for four years ſucceſſively. The chairman has a ſalary of 200l. a year, and each of the directors 150l. The meetings, or court of directors, are to be held at leaſt once a week; but are commonly oftener, being ſummoned as occaſion requires. Out of the body of directors are choſen ſeveral committees, who have the peculiar inſpection of certain branches of the company's buſineſs; as the committee of correſpondence, a committee of treaſury, a houſe committee, a committee of warehouſe, a committee of ſhipping, a committee of accounts, a committee of lawſuits, and a committee to prevent the growth of private trade; who have under them a ſecretary, caſhier, clerks, and warehouſe-keepers.

The amazing territorial acquiſitions of this company, computed to be 282,000 ſquare miles, and containing thirty millions of people, muſt be neceſſarily attended with a proportionable increaſe of trade *; and this, joined to the diſſenſions among its managers both at home and abroad, has of late greatly engaged the attention of the legiſlature. A reſtriction has occaſionally been laid on their dividends for a certain time. From the report of the committee in 1773, appointed by parliament, on Indian affairs, it appears that the India company, from the year 1708 to the year 1756, for the ſpace of forty-ſeven years and a half, divided the ſum of 12,000,000l. or above 280,000l. per annum, which, on a capital of 3,190,000l. amounted to above eight and a half per cent. and that at the laſt-mentioned period it appeared, that, beſides the above dividend, the capital ſtock of the company had been increaſed 180,000l. Conſiderable alterations were made in the affairs and conſtitution of the Eaſt India company, by an act paſſed in 1773, intitled, "An act for eſtabliſhing certain rules and orders, for the "future management of the affairs of the Eaſt India company, as well in "India as in Europe." It was thereby enacted, that the court of directors ſhould, in future, be elected for four years; ſix members annually, but none to hold their ſeats longer than four years. That no perſons ſhould vote at the election of the directors, who had not poſſeſſed their ſtock twelve months. That the ſtock of qualification ſhould, inſtead of 500l. as it had formerly been, be 1000l. That the mayor's court of Calcutta ſhould, for the future, be confined to ſmall mercantile cauſes, to which only its juriſdiction extended before the territorial acquiſition. That, in lieu of this court thus taken away, a new one be eſtabliſhed, conſiſting of a chief juſtice and three puiſne judges, and that theſe judges be appointed by the crown. That a ſuperiority be given to the preſidency of

* According to liſts laid before the Houſe of Commons the company employed 110 ſhips, and 8170 men.

Between India and Europe, in carrying cargoes to and from	70 ſhips	and 7130 men.
In the country trade, and from China	6 Packets	320
	34 Crabs	720

Bengal, over the other preſidencies in India. That the right of nominating the governor and council of Bengal ſhould be veſted in the crown. The ſalaries of the judges were alſo fixed at 8000l. to the chief juſtice, and 6000l. a year to each of the other three. The appointments of the governor-general and council were fixed, the firſt at 25,000l. and the four others at 10,000l. each, annually. This was certainly a very extraordinary act; and an immenſe power and influence were thereby added to the crown. But no proportional benefit has hitherto reſulted to the company: on the contrary, the new-eſtabliſhed court of juſtice has paid ſo little attention to the manners of the inhabitants of India, and to the uſages of that country, as to occaſion the moſt alarming diſcontents among the natives, and great diſſatisfaction even among the company's own ſervants.

In the month of November, 1783, Mr. Fox, then ſecretary of ſtate, brought forward a bill for new regulating the company, under the ſuppoſition of the incompetency of the directors, and the preſent inſolvent ſtate of the company.

The bill paſſed the commons; but, it ſeems, by the ſecret influence of the crown, an oppoſition was formed againſt it in the houſe of lords, as placing too dangerous a power in the hands of any men, and which would be ſure to operate againſt the neceſſary power of the crown; and, after long debates, it was thrown out by a majority of nineteen peers. The conſequence of this was the downfall of the miniſtry, and a general revolution of the cabinet.

By the new bill, which paſſed at the cloſe of the ſeſſions, 1784, three things were intended:

Firſt, the eſtabliſhing a power of controul in this kingdom, by which the executive government in India is to be connected with that over the reſt of the empire.

Secondly the regulating the conduct of the company's ſervants in India, in order to remedy the evils which have prevailed there.

Thirdly, the providing for the puniſhment of thoſe perſons who ſhall nevertheleſs continue in the practice of crimes which have brought diſgrace upon the country.

Accordingly, ſix perſons are to be nominated by the king as commiſſioners for the affairs of India, of whom one of the ſecretaries of ſtate, and the chancellor of the exchequer for the time being, ſhall be two; and the preſident is to have the caſting vote, if equally divided. New commiſſioners to be appointed at the pleaſure of the crown. This board is to ſuperintend, direct, and controul all acts, operations, and concerns, which in any wiſe relate to the civil and military government or revenues of the Britiſh territorial poſſeſſions in the Eaſt Indies. They are ſworn to execute the ſeveral powers and truſts repoſed in them, without favour or affection, prejudice or malice, to any perſon whatever. The court of directors of the company are to deliver to this board all minutes, orders, and reſolutions of themſelves, and of the courts of proprietors, and copies of all letters, orders, and inſtructions propoſed to be ſent abroad, for their approbation or alteration; none to be ſent until after ſuch previous communication on any pretence whatſoever. The directors are ſtill to appoint the ſervants abroad; but the king hath a power, by his ſecretary of ſtate, to recall either of the governors or members of the councils, or any perſon holding any office under the company in their ſettlements, and make void their appointment. By this bill there is given to the governors and council of Bengal, a controul over the other preſidencies, in all points which relate to any tranſactions with the country powers, to peace and war, or to the application of their forces or revenues; but the council of Bengal are ſubjected to the abſolute

ſolute direction of the company at home, and in all caſes except thoſe of immediate danger and neceſſity, reſtrained from acting without orders received from hence.

BANK OF ENGLAND.] The company of the Bank was incorporated by parliament, in the 5th and 6th years of king William and queen Mary, by the name of the Governors and Company of the Bank of England, in conſideration of the loan of 1,200,000 l. granted to the government; for which the ſubſcribers received almoſt 8 per cent. By this charter, the company are not to borrow under their common ſeal, unleſs by act of parliament; they are not to trade, or ſuffer any perſon in truſt for them to trade, in any goods or merchandiſe; but they may deal in bills of exchange, in buying or ſelling bullion, and foreign gold and ſilver coin, &c.

By an act of parliament paſſed in the 8th and 9th years of William III. they were impowered to enlarge their capital ſtock to 2,201,171 l. 10s. It was then alſo enacted, that Bank ſtock ſhould be a perſonal and not a real eſtate; that no contract, either in word or writing, for buying or ſelling Bank ſtock, ſhould be good in law, unleſs regiſtered in the books of the Bank within ſeven days, and the ſtock transferred in fourteen days; and that it ſhould be felony, without the benefit of clergy, to counterfeit the common ſeal of the Bank, or any ſealed Bank bill, or any Bank-note, or to alter or eraſe ſuch bills or notes.

By another act paſſed in the 7th of queen Anne, the company were impowered to augment their capital to 4,402,343 l. and they then advanced 400,000 l. more to the government; and in 1714, they advanced another loan of 1,500,000 l.

In the third year of the reign of king George I. the intereſt of their capital ſtock was reduced to 5 per cent. when the Bank agreed to deliver up as many Exchequer bills as amounted to 2,000,000 l. and to accept an annuity of 100,000 l. and it was declared lawful for the Bank to call from their members, in proportion to their intereſts in their capital ſtock, ſuch ſums of money as in a general court ſhould be found neceſſary. If any member ſhould neglect to pay his ſhare of the monies ſo called for, at the time appointed, by notice in the London Gazette, and fixed upon the Royal Exchange, it ſhould be lawful for the Bank, not only to ſtop the dividend of ſuch a member, and to apply it toward payment of the money in queſtion, but alſo to ſtop the transfers of the ſhare of ſuch defaulter, and to charge him with the intereſt of 5 per cent. per annum for the money ſo omitted to be paid; and if the principal and intereſt ſhould be three months unpaid, the Bank ſhould then have power to ſell ſo much of the ſtock belonging to the defaulter, as would ſatisfy the ſame.

After this, the Bank reduced the intereſt of the 2,000,000 l. lent to the government, from 5 to 4 per cent. and purchaſed ſeveral other annuities, which were afterwards redeemed by the government, and the national debt, due to the Bank, reduced to 1,600,000 l. But in 1742, the company engaged to ſupply the government with 1,600,000 l. at three per cent. which is now called the three per cent. annuities; ſo that the government was now indebted to the company 3,200,000 l. the one half carrying 4, and the other 3 per cent.

In the year 1746, the company agreed that the ſum of 986,800 l. due to them in the Exchequer bills unſatisfied, on the duties for licences to ſell ſpirituous liquors by retail, ſhould be cancelled, and in lieu thereof to accept of an annuity of 39,442 l. the intereſt of that ſum at 4 per cent. The company alſo agreed to advance the farther ſum of 1,000,000 l. into the Exchequer, upon the credit of the duties ariſing by the malt and land-tax,

at

at 4 per cent. for Exchequer bills to be iſſued for that purpoſe; in conſideration of which, the company were enabled to augment their capital with 986,800l. the intereſt of which, as well as that of the other annuities, was reduced to three and a half per cent. till the 25th of December, 1757, and from that time to carry only 3 per cent.

And in order to enable them to circulate the ſaid Exchequer bills, they eſtabliſhed what is now called Bank circulation; the nature of which not being well underſtood, we ſhall take the liberty to be a little more particular in its explanation, than we have been with regard to the other ſtocks.

The company of the Bank are obliged to keep caſh ſufficient to anſwer not only the common, but alſo any extraordinary demand that may be made upon them; and whatever money they have by them over and above the ſum ſuppoſed neceſſary for theſe purpoſes, they employ in what may be called the trade of the company; that is to ſay, in diſcounting bills of exchange, in buying of gold and ſilver, and in government ſecurities, &c. But when the Bank entered into the abovementioned contract, as they did not keep unemployed a larger ſum of money than what they deemed neceſſary to anſwer their ordinary and extraordinary demands, they could not conveniently take out of their current caſh ſo large a ſum as a million, with which they were obliged to furniſh the government, without either leſſening that ſum they employed in diſcounting, buying gold and ſilver, &c. (which would have been very diſadvantageous to them), or inventing ſome method that ſhould anſwer all the purpoſes of keeping the million in caſh. The method which they choſe, and which fully anſwers their end, was as follows:

They opened a ſubſcription, which they renew annually, for a million of money: wherein the ſubſcribers advance 10 per cent. and enter into a contract to pay the remainder, or any part thereof, whenever the Bank ſhall call upon them, under the penalty of forfeiting the 10 per cent. ſo advanced; in conſideration of which, the Bank pays the ſubſcribers 4 per cent. intereſt for the money paid in, and one fourth per cent. for the whole ſum they agree to furniſh; and in caſe a call ſhould be made upon them for the whole or any part thereof, the Bank farther agrees to pay them at the rate of 5 per cent. per annum for ſuch ſum, till they repay it, which they are under an obligation to do at the end of the year. By this means the Bank obtains all the purpoſes of keeping a million of money by them; and though the ſubſcribers, if no call is made upon them (which is in general the caſe), receive ſix and a half per cent. for the money they advance, yet the company gains the ſum of 23,500l. per annum by the contract: as will appear by the following account:

	£.
The Bank receives from the government for the advance of a million	30,000
The bank pays to the ſubſcribers who advance 100,000 l. and engage to pay (when called for) 900,000 l. more	6,500
The clear gain to the Bank therefore is	23,500

This is the ſtate of the caſe, provided the company ſhould make no call on the ſubſcribers, which they will be very unwilling to do, becauſe it would not only leſſen their profit, but affect the public credit in general.

Bank ſtock may not improperly be called a trading ſtock, ſince with this they deal very largely in foreign gold and ſilver, in diſcounting bills of

of exchange*, &c. Beſides which, they are allowed by the government very conſiderable ſums annually, for the management of the annuities paid at their office. All which advantages render a ſhare in their ſtock very valuable; though it is not equal in value to the Eaſt India ſtock. The company make dividends of the profits half yearly, of which notice is publicly given; when thoſe who have occaſion for their money, may readily receive it: but private perſons, if they judge convenient, are permitted to continue their funds, and to have their intereſt added to the principal †.

This company is under the direction of a governor, deputy-governor, and twenty-four directors, who are annually elected by the general-court, in the ſame manner as in the Eaſt India company. Thirteen, or more, compoſe a court of directors for managing the affairs of the company.

The officers and ſervants of this company are very numerous.

South-Sea Company.] During the long war with France in the reign of queen Anne, the payment of the ſailors of the royal navy being neglected, and they receiving tickets inſtead of money, were frequently obliged, by their neceſſities, to ſell theſe tickets to avaricious men, at a diſcount of 40l. and ſometimes 50l. per cent. By this, and other means, the debts of the nation, unprovided for by parliament, and which amounted to 9,471,321l. fell into the hands of theſe uſurers. On which Mr. Harley, at that time chancellor of the exchequer, and afterwards earl of Oxford, propoſed a ſcheme to allow the proprietors of theſe debts and deficiencies 6l. per cent. per annum, and to incorporate them, in order to their carrying on a trade to the South-Sea; and they were accordingly incorporated under the title of "the Governor and Company of Merchants of Great Britain, trading to the South-Seas, and other parts of America, and for encouraging the fiſhery," &c.

Though this company ſeemed formed for the ſake of commerce, it is certain that the miniſtry never thought ſeriouſly, during the courſe of the war, about making any ſettlement on the coaſt of South America, which was what flattered the expectations of the people; nor was it indeed ever carried into execution, or any trade ever undertaken by this company, except the Aſſiento, in purſuance of the treaty of Utrecht, for furniſhing the Spaniards with Negroes, of which this company was deprived, upon receiving 100,000l. in lieu of all claims upon Spain, by a convention between the courts of Great Britain and Spain, ſoon after the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748.

Some other ſums were lent to the government in the reign of queen Anne, at 6 per cent. In the third of George I. the intereſt of the whole was reduced to 5 per cent. and they advanced two millions more to the government at the ſame intereſt. By the ſtatute of the 6th of George I. it was declared, that this company might redeem all or any of the redeemable national debts; in conſideration of which, the company were impowered to augment their capital according to the ſums they ſhould diſcharge: and for enabling the company to raiſe ſuch ſums for purchaſing annuities, exchanging for ready money new Exchequer bills, carrying on their trade, &c. the company might, by ſuch means as they ſhould think proper, raiſe ſuch ſums of money, as in a general court of the company ſhould be judged neceſſary. The company were alſo impowered to raiſe money on the contracts, bonds, or obligations under their common ſeal, on the credit of

* At four per cent. till the year 1773, when it was advanced to five.
† The Bank Company is ſuppoſed to have now twelve millions of circulating paper.

their

their public ſtock. But if the ſub-governor, deputy-governor, or other members of the company, ſhould purchaſe lands or revenues of the crown, upon account of the corporation, or lend money by loan or anticipation on any branch of the revenue, other than ſuch part only on which a credit of loan was granted by parliament, ſuch ſub-governor, or other member of the company, ſhould forfeit triple the value ſo lent.

The fatal South-Sea ſcheme, tranſacted in the year 1720, was executed upon the laſt-mentioned ſtatute. The company had at firſt ſet out with good ſucceſs, and the value of their ſtock, for the firſt five years, had riſen faſter than that of any other company; and his majeſty, after purchaſing 10,000l. ſtock, had condeſcended to be their governor. Things were in this ſituation when, taking advantage of the above ſtatute, the South-Sea bubble was projected; the pretended deſign of which was, to raiſe a fund for carrying on a trade to the South-Sea, and purchaſing annuities, &c. paid to the other companies: and propoſals were printed and diſtributed, ſhowing the advantages of the deſign, and inviting perſons into it. The ſum neceſſary for carrying it on, together with the profits that were to ariſe from it, were divided into a certain number of ſhares, or ſubſcriptions, to be purchaſed by perſons diſpoſed to adventure therein. And the better to carry on the deception, the directors engaged to make very large dividends, and actually declared that every 100l. original ſtock would yield 50l. per annum: which occaſioned ſo great a riſe of their ſtock, that a ſhare of 100l. was ſold for 800l. This was in the month of July; but before the end of September, it fell to 150l. by which multitudes were ruined, and ſuch a ſcene of diſtreſs occaſioned, as is ſcarcely to be conceived. But the conſequences of this infamous ſcheme are too well known; moſt of the directors were ſeverely fined, to the loſs of nearly all their property; ſome of whom had no hand in the deception, nor gained a farthing by it; but it was agreed they ought to have oppoſed and prevented it.

By a ſtatute of the 6th of George II. it was enacted, that from and after the 24th of June, 1733, the capital ſtock of this company, which amounted to 14,631,103l. 8s. 1d. and the ſhares of the reſpective proprietors, ſhould be divided into four equal parts; three fourths of which ſhould be converted into a joint ſtock, attended with annuities after the rate of 4 per cent. until redemption by parliament, and ſhould be called the New South-Sea annuities, and the other fourth part ſhould remain in the company as a trading capital ſtock, attended with the reſidue of the annuities or funds payable at the exchequer to the company for their whole capital, till redemption; and attended with the ſame ſums always allowed for the charge of management, with all effects, profits of trade, debts, privileges, and advantages belonging to the South-Sea company: that the accountant of the company ſhould, twice every year, at Chriſtmas and Midſummer, or within one month after, ſtate an account of the company's affairs, which ſhould be laid before the next general court, in order to their declaring a dividend; and all dividends ſhould be made out of the clear profits, and ſhould not exceed what the company might reaſonably divide without incurring any further debt; provided that the company ſhould not at any time divide more than 4 per cent. per annum until their debts were diſcharged; and the South-Sea company, and their trading ſtock, ſhould, excluſively from the new joint ſtock of annuities, be liable to all debts and incumbrances of the company; and that the company ſhould cauſe to be kept, within the city of London, an office and books, in which all transfers of the new annuities ſhould be entered, and ſigned by the party making ſuch transfer, or his attorney; and the perſon to whom

ſuch

ſuch transfer ſhould be made, or his attorney, ſhould underwrite his acceptance; and no other method of transferring the annuities ſhould be good in law.

The annuities of this company, as well as the other, are now reduced to 3l. per cent.

This company is under the direction of a governor, ſub-governor, deputy-governor, and twenty-one directors: but no perſon is qualified to be governor, his majeſty excepted, unleſs ſuch governor has, in his own name and right, 5000l. in the trading ſtock; the ſub-governor is to have 4000l. the deputy-governor 3000l. and a director 2000l. in the ſame ſtock. In every general court, every member, having in his own name and right 500l. in trading ſtock, has one vote; if 2000l. two votes; if 3000l. three votes, and if 5000l. four votes.

The Eaſt India company, the Bank of England, and the South Sea-company, are the only incorporated bodies to which the government is indebted, except the million bank, whoſe capital is only one million, conſtituted to purchaſe the reverſion of the long Exchequer orders.

The intereſt of all the debts owing by the government was lately reduced to 3 per cent. excepting only the annuities for the year 1758, the life annuities, and the Exchequer orders; but the South-Sea company ſtill continues to divide 4 per cent. on their preſent capital ſtock; which they are enabled to do from the profits they make on the ſums allowed to them for management of the annuities paid at their office, and from the intereſt of annuities which are not claimed by the proprietors.

As the prices of the different ſtocks are continually fluctuating above and below *par*; ſo when a perſon, who is not acquainted with tranſactions of that nature, reads in the papers the prices of ſtocks, where Bank ſtock is marked perhaps 127, India ditto, 134 a 134½, South-Sea ditto, 97½, &c. he is to underſtand that 100l. of thoſe reſpective ſtocks ſell at ſuch a time for thoſe ſeveral ſums.

In comparing the prices of the different ſtocks one with another, it muſt be remembered, that the intereſt due on them from the time of the laſt payment is taken into the current price, and the ſeller never receives any ſeparate conſideration for it, except in the caſe of India bonds, where the intereſt due is calculated to the day of the ſale, and paid by the purchaſer, over and above the premium agreed for. But as the intereſt on the different ſtocks is paid at different times, this, if not rightly underſtood, would lead a perſon, not well acquainted with them, into conſiderable miſtakes in his computation of their value; ſome always having a quarter's intereſt due on them more than others, which makes an appearance of a conſiderable difference in the price, when in reality there is none at all; thus, for inſtance, Old South-Sea annuities ſell for 85½l. or 85l. 10s. while New South-Sea annuities fetch only 84¾l. or 84l. 15s. though each of them produce the annual ſum of 3 per cent.; but the old annuities have a quarter's intereſt more due on them than the new annuities, which amounts to 15s. the exact difference. There is, however, one or two cauſes that will always make one ſpecies of annuities ſell ſomewhat lower than another, though of the ſame real value; one of which is, the annuities making but a ſmall capital, and there not being, for that reaſon, ſo many people at all times ready to buy into it, as into others, where the quantity is larger; becauſe it is apprehended that whenever the government pays off the national debt, they will begin with that particular ſpecies of annuity, the capital of which is the ſmalleſt.

While the annuities, and intereſt for money advanced, are regularly paid, and the principal inſured by both prince and people (a ſecurity not to be had

had in other nations), foreigners will lend us their property, and all Europe be intereſted in our welfare; the paper of the companies will be converted into money and merchandiſe, and Great Britain can never want caſh to carry her ſchemes into execution. In other nations, credit is founded on the word of the prince, if a monarchy; or that of the people, if a republic; but here it is eſtabliſhed on the intereſt of both prince and people, which is the ſtrongeſt ſecurity: for however lovely and engaging honeſty may be in other ſubjects, intereſt in money matters will always obtain confidence; becauſe many people pay great regard to their intereſt, who have but little veneration for virtue.

CONSTITUTION AND LAWS.] Tacitus, in deſcribing ſuch a conſtitution as that of England, ſeems to think, that however beautiful it may be in theory, it will be found impracticable in the execution. Experience has proved this to be a miſtake; for, by contrivances unknown to antiquity, the Engliſh conſtitution has exiſted for above 500 years. It muſt at the ſame time be admitted, that it has received, during that time, many amendments, and ſome interruptions; but its principles are the ſame with thoſe deſcribed by the above-mentioned hiſtorian, as belonging to the Germans, and the other northern anceſtors of the Engliſh nation, and which are very improperly blended under the name of Gothic. On the firſt invaſion of England by the Saxons, who came from Germany and the neighbouring countries, their laws and manners were pretty much the ſame as thoſe mentioned by Tacitus. The people had a leader in time of war. The conquered lands, in proportion to the merits of his followers, and their abilities to ſerve him, were diſtributed among them; and the whole was conſidered as the common property, which they were to unite in defending againſt all invaders. Freſh adventurers coming over under ſeparate leaders, the old inhabitants were driven into Wales; and thoſe leaders at laſt aſſumed the titles of kings over the ſeveral diſtricts they had conquered. This change of appellation made them more reſpectable among the Britons, and their neighbours the Scots and Picts, but did not increaſe their power, the operations of which continued to be confined to military affairs.

All civil matters were propoſed in a general aſſembly of the chief officers and the people, till, by degrees, ſheriffs and other civil officers were appointed. To Alfred we owe that maſterpiece of judicial policy, the ſubdiviſion of England into wapentakes and hundreds, and the ſubdiviſion of hundreds into tythings, names that ſtill ſubſiſt in England; and overſeers were choſen to direct them for the good of the whole. The ſheriff was the judge of all civil and criminal matters within the county, and to him, after the introduction of Chriſtianity, was added the biſhop. In proceſs of time, as buſineſs multiplied, itinerant and other judges were appointed; but by the earlieſt records, it appears that all civil matters were decided by 12 or 16 men, living in the neighbourhood of the place where the diſpute lay; and here we have the original of Engliſh juries. It is certain that they were in uſe among the earlieſt Saxon colonies, their inſtitution being aſcribed by biſhop Nicholſon to Woden himſelf, their great legiſlator and captain. Hence we find traces of juries in the laws of all thoſe nations which adopted the feodal ſyſtem, as in Germany, France, and Italy; who had, all of them, a tribunal compoſed of 12 good men and true, equals or peers of the party litigant. In England we find actual mention made of them ſo early as the laws of king Ethelred, and that not as a new invention.

Before the introduction of Chriſtianity, we know not whether the Saxons admitted of juries in criminal matters; but we are certain that there was

no action ſo criminal as not to be compenſated for by money *. A mulct was impoſed, in proportion to the guilt, even if it was murder of the king, upon the malefactor; and by paying it he purchaſed his pardon. Thoſe barbarous uſages ſeem to have ceaſed ſoon after the Saxons were converted to Chriſtianity; and caſes of felony and murder were then tried, even in the king's court, by a jury.

Royalty, among the Saxons, was not, ſtrictly ſpeaking, hereditary, though, in fact, it came to be rendered ſo through the affection which the people bore for the blood of their kings, and for preſerving the regularity of government. Even eſtates and honours were not ſtrictly hereditary, till they were made ſo by William the Norman.

In many reſpects, the firſt princes of the Norman line afterwards did all they could to efface from the minds of the people the remembrance of the Saxon conſtitution; but the attempt was to no purpoſe. The nobility, as well as the people, had their complaints againſt the crown; and, after much war and bloodſhed, the famous charter of Engliſh liberties, ſo well known by the name of Magna Charta, was forcibly, in a manner, obtained from king John, and confirmed by his ſon Henry III. who ſucceeded to the crown in 1216. It does not appear, that, till this reign, and after a great deal of blood had been ſpilt, the commons of England were repreſented in parliament, or the great council of the nation; ſo entirely had the barons engroſſed to themſelves the diſpoſal of property.

The preciſe year when the houſe of commons was formed, is not known: but we are certain there was one in the reign of Henry III. though we ſhall not enter into any diſputes about their ſpecific powers. We therefore now proceed to deſcribe the CONSTITUTION, as it ſtands at preſent.

In all ſtates there is an abſolute ſupreme power, to which the right of legiſlation belongs; and which, by the ſingular conſtitution of theſe kingdoms, is here veſted in the king, lords, and commons.

OF THE KING.] The ſupreme executive power of Great Britain and Ireland is veſted by our conſtitution in a ſingle perſon, king or queen: for it is indifferent to which ſex the crown deſcends: the perſon entitled to it, whether male or female, is immediately intruſted with all the enſigns, rights, and prerogatives of ſovereign power.

The grand fundamental maxim, upon which the right of ſucceſſion to the throne of theſe kingdoms depends, is, "that the crown, by common law and conſtitutional cuſtom, is hereditary, and this in a manner peculiar to itſelf: but that the right of inheritance may, from time to time, be changed, or limited, by act of parliament: under which limitations the crown ſtill continues hereditary."

That the reader may enter more clearly into the deduction of the following royal ſucceſſion, by its being transferred from the houſe of Tudor to that of Stuart, it may be proper to inform him, that, on the death of queen Elizabeth without iſſue, it became neceſſary to recur to the other iſſue of her grandfather Henry VII. by Elizabeth of York his Queen; whoſe eldeſt daughter Margaret having married James IV. king of Scotland, king James the Sixth of Scotland, and of England the Firſt, was the lineal deſcendant from that alliance. So that in his perſon, as clearly as in Henry VIII. centred all the claims of the different competitors, from the Norman invaſion downward; he being indiſputably the lineal heir of William I. And, what is ſtill more remarkable, in his perſon alſo centred the right of the Saxon monarchs, which had been ſuſpended from the Norman invaſion till his acceſſion. For Margaret, the ſiſter of Edgar Athel-

* Called by the Saxons GUELT, and thence the word *guilty* in criminal trials.

ing,

ing, the daughter of Edward the Outlaw, and grand-daughter of king Edmund Ironſide, was the perſon in whom the hereditary right of the Saxon kings, ſuppoſing it not aboliſhed by the Conqueſt, reſided. She married Malcolm III. king of Scotland; and Henry II. by a deſcent from Matilda their daughter, is generally called the reſtorer of the Saxon line. But it muſt be remembered, that Malcolm, by his Saxon queen, had ſons as well as daughters; and that the royal family of Scotland, from that time downward, were the offspring of Malcolm and Margaret. Of this royal family king James I. was the direct and lineal deſcendant; and therefore united in his perſon every poſſible claim, by hereditary right, to the Engliſh as well as Scottiſh throne, being the heir both of Egbert and William the Norman.

At the Revolution in 1688, the convention of eſtates, or repreſentative body of the nation, declared that the miſconduct of king James II. amounted to an abdication of the government, and that the throne was thereby vacant.

In conſequence of this vacancy, and from a regard to the ancient line, the convention appointed the next Proteſtant heirs of the blood royal of king Charles I. to fill the vacant throne, in the old order of ſucceſſion; with a temporary exception, or preference to the perſon of king William III.

On the impending failure of the Proteſtant line of king Charles I. (whereby the throne might again have become vacant) the king and parliament extended the ſettlement of the crown to the Proteſtant line of king James I. viz. to the princeſs Sophia of Hanover, and the heirs of her body, being Proteſtants; and ſhe is now the common ſtock, from whom the heirs of the crown muſt deſcend *.

The

* A chronology of Engliſh KINGS, ſince the time that this country became united under one monarchy, in the perſon of Egbert, who ſubdued the other princes of the Saxon Heptarchy, and gave the name of Angle-land to this part of the iſland, the Saxons and the Angles having, about four centuries before, invaded and ſubdued the ancient Britons, whom they drove into Wales and Cornwall.

Began to reign.		
800	Egbert	Saxon Princes.
838	Ethelwulf	
857	Ethelbald	
860	Ethelbert	
866	Ethelred	
871	Alfred the Great	
901	Edward the Elder	
925	Athelſtan	
941	Edmund	
946	Edred	
955	Edwy	
959	Edgar	
975	Edward the Martyr	
978	Ethelred II.	
1016	Edmund II. or Ironſide	
1017	Canute King of Denmark	Daniſh.
1035	Harold	
1039	Hardicanute	
1041	Edward the Confeſſor	Saxon.
1065	Harold	
1066	William I.	(Commonly called the Conqueror) duke of Normandy, a province facing the ſouth of England, now annexed to the French monarchy.
1087	William II.	Sons of the Conqueror.
1100	Henry I.	
1035	Stephen, grandſon to the Conqueror, by his fourth daughter Adela.	

1154 Henry

The true ground and principle, upon which the Revolution proceeded, was entirely a new caſe in politics, which had never before happened in our hiſtory; the abdication of the reigning monarch, and the vacancy of the throne thereupon. It was not a defeaſance of the right of ſucceſſion, and a new limitation of the crown, by the king and both houſes of parliament; it was the act of the nation alone, upon a conviction that there was no king in being. For in a full aſſembly of the lords and commons, met in convention upon the ſuppoſition of this vacancy, both houſes came to this reſolution: "that king James II. having endeavoured to ſubvert the conſtitution of the kingdom, by breaking the original contract between king and people; and by the advice of Jeſuits, and other wicked perſons, having violated the fundamental laws, and having withdrawn himſelf out of this kingdom, has abdicated the government; and that the throne is thereby vacant." Thus ended at once, by this ſudden and unexpected revolution,

Began to reign.		
1154	Henry II.	(Plantagenet) grandſon of Henry I. by his daughter the empreſs Maud, and her ſecond huſband, Geoffrey Plantagenet.
1189	Richard I.	ſons of Henry II.
1199	John.	
1216	Henry III.	ſon of John.
1272	Edward I.	ſon of Henry III.
1307	Edward II.	ſon of Edward I.
1327	Edward III.	ſon of Edward II.
1377	Richard II.	grandſon of Edward III. by his eldeſt ſon the Black Prince.
1399	Henry IV.	ſon to John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaſter, 4th ſon of Edward III. — Houſe of Lancaſter.
1413	Henry V.	ſon of Henry IV. — Houſe of Lancaſter.
1422	Henry VI.	ſon to Henry V. — Houſe of Lancaſter.
1461	Edward IV.	deſcended from Edward III. by Lionel his 3d ſon. — Houſe of York.
1483	Edward V.	ſon of Edward IV. — Houſe of York.
1483	Richard III.	brother to Edward IV. — Houſe of York.
1485	Henry VII.	(Tudor) ſon of the counteſs of Richmond, of the houſe of Lancaſter. — Houſe of Tudor, in whom were united the houſes of Lancaſter and York, by Henry VII.'s marriage with Elizabeth, daughter of Edward IV.
1509	Henry VIII.	ſon of Henry VII. — Houſe of Tudor, in whom were united the houſes of Lancaſter and York, by Henry VII.'s marriage with Elizabeth, daughter of Edward IV.
1547	Edward VI.	ſon of Henry VIII. — Houſe of Tudor, in whom were united the houſes of Lancaſter and York, by Henry VII.'s marriage with Elizabeth, daughter of Edward IV.
1553	Mary	Daughters of Henry VIII. — Houſe of Tudor, in whom were united the houſes of Lancaſter and York, by Henry VII.'s marriage with Elizabeth, daughter of Edward IV.
1558	Elizabeth	Daughters of Henry VIII. — Houſe of Tudor, in whom were united the houſes of Lancaſter and York, by Henry VII.'s marriage with Elizabeth, daughter of Edward IV.
1603	James I.	Great-grandſon of James IV. king of Scotland, by Margaret, daughter of Henry VII. and firſt of the Stuart family in England.
1625	Charles I.	ſon of James I.
Commonwealth and protectorate of Cromwell.		
1649	Charles II.	ſons of Charles I.
1685	James II.	ſons of Charles I.
1688	William III. and Mary	nephew and ſon-in-law of James II. Daughters of James II. in whom ended the Proteſtant line of Charles I. For James II. upon his abdicating the throne, carried with him his ſuppoſed infant ſon (the late Pretender), who was excluded by act of parliament, which ſettled the ſucceſſion in the next Proteſtant heirs of James I. The ſurviving iſſue of James, at the time of his death, were a ſon and a daughter, viz. Charles who ſucceeded him, and the princeſs Elizabeth, who married the elector Palatine, who took the title of king of Bohemia, and left a daughter, the princeſs Sophia, who married the duke of Brunſwick Lunenburgh, by whom ſhe had George, elector of Hanover, who aſcended the throne, by act of parliament expreſsly made in favour of his mother.
1702	Anne	Daughters of James II. in whom ended the Proteſtant line of Charles I. For James II. upon his abdicating the throne, carried with him his ſuppoſed infant ſon (the late Pretender), who was excluded by act of parliament, which ſettled the ſucceſſion in the next Proteſtant heirs of James I. The ſurviving iſſue of James, at the time of his death, were a ſon and a daughter, viz. Charles who ſucceeded him, and the princeſs Elizabeth, who married the elector Palatine, who took the title of king of Bohemia, and left a daughter, the princeſs Sophia, who married the duke of Brunſwick Lunenburgh, by whom ſhe had George, elector of Hanover, who aſcended the throne, by act of parliament expreſsly made in favour of his mother.
1714	George I.	Houſe of Hanover.
1727	George II.	ſon of George I. — Houſe of Hanover.
1760	George III.	grandſon of George II. — Houſe of Hanover.

the old line of ſucceſſion, which, from the Norman invaſion, had laſted above 600 years, and from the union of the Saxon heptarchy in king Egbert, almoſt 900.

Though in ſome points the revolution was not ſo perfect as might have been wiſhed, yet from thence a new æra commenced, in which the bounds of prerogative and liberty have been better defined, the principles of government more thoroughly examined and underſtood, and the rights of the ſubject more explicitly guarded by legal proviſions, than in any other period of the Engliſh hiſtory. In particular, it is worthy obſervation, that the convention, in this their judgment, avoided with great wiſdom the extremes into which the viſionary theories of ſome zealous republicans would have led them. They held that this miſconduct of king James amounted to an endeavour to ſubvert the conſtitution, and not to an actual ſubverſion, or total diſſolution of the government. They, therefore, very prudently voted it to amount to no more than an abdication of the government, and a conſequent vacancy of the throne; whereby the government was allowed to ſubſiſt, though the executive magiſtrate was gone; and the kingly office to remain, though James was no longer king. And thus the conſtitution was kept entire; which, upon every ſound principle of government, muſt otherwiſe have fallen to pieces, had ſo principal and conſtituent a part as the royal authority been aboliſhed, or even ſuſpended.

Hence it is eaſy to collect, that the title to the crown is at preſent hereditary, though not quite ſo abſolutely hereditary as formerly; and the common ſtock or anceſtor, from whom the deſcent muſt be derived, is alſo different. Formerly the common ſtock was king Egbert; then William the Conqueror; afterward, in James I.'s time, the two common ſtocks united, and ſo continued till the vacancy of the throne in 1688: now it is the princeſs Sophia, in whom the inheritance was veſted by the new king and parliament. Formerly the deſcent was abſolute, and the crown went to the next heir without any reſtriction; but now, upon the new ſettlement, the inheritance is conditional; being limited to ſuch heirs only of the body of the princeſs Sophia, as are proteſtant members of the church of England, and are married to none but Proteſtants.

And in this due medium conſiſts the true conſtitutional notion of the right of ſucceſſion to the imperial crown of theſe kingdoms. The extremes between which it ſteers, have been thought each of them to be deſtructive of thoſe ends, for which ſocieties were formed and are kept on foot. Where the magiſtrate, upon every ſucceſſion, is elected by the people, and may, by the expreſs proviſion of the laws, be depoſed (if not puniſhed) by his ſubjects, this may ſound like the perfection of liberty, and look well enough when delineated on paper; but in practice will be ever found extremely difficult. And, on the other hand, divine indefeaſible hereditary right, when coupled with the doctrine of unlimited paſſive obedience, is ſurely, of all conſtitutions, the moſt thoroughly ſlaviſh and dreadful. But when ſuch an hereditary right as our laws have created and veſted in the royal ſtock, is cloſely interwoven with thoſe liberties which are equally the inheritance of the ſubject, this union will form a conſtitution, in theory the moſt beautiful of any, in practice the moſt approved, and in all probability will prove in duration the moſt permanent. This conſtitution it is the duty of every Briton to underſtand, to revere, and to defend.

The principal duties of the king are expreſſed in his oath at the coronation, which is adminiſtered by one of the archbiſhops or biſhops of the realm, in the preſence of all the people, who, on their parts, do reciprocally take the

the oath of allegiance to the crown. This coronation oath is conceived in the following terms:

"*The archbiſhop, or biſhop, ſhall ſay,* Will you ſolemnly promiſe and ſwear, to govern the people of this kingdom of England, and the dominions thereunto belonging, according to the ſtatutes in parliament agreed on, and the laws and cuſtoms of the ſame?—*The king or queen ſhall ſay,* I ſolemnly promiſe ſo to do.

"*Archbiſhop or biſhop.* Will you, to your power, cauſe law and juſtice, in mercy, to be executed in all your judgments?—*King or queen.* I will.

"*Archbiſhop or biſhop.* Will you to the utmoſt of your power maintain the laws of God, the true profeſſion of the goſpel, and the proteſtant reformed religion eſtabliſhed by the law? And will you preſerve unto the biſhops and clergy of this realm, and to the churches committed to their charge, all ſuch rights and privileges as by the law do or ſhall appertain unto them, or any of them?—*King or queen.* All this I promiſe to do.

"*After this, the king or queen, laying his or her hand upon the holy goſpels, ſhall ſay,* The things which I have here before promiſed, I will perform and keep: ſo help me God. *And then kiſs the book.*"

This is the form of the coronation oath, as it is now preſcribed by our laws: and we may obſerve, that, in the king's part, in this original contract, are expreſſed all the duties that a monarch can owe to his people; viz. to govern according to law; to execute judgment in mercy; and to maintain the eſtabliſhed religion. With reſpect to the latter of theſe three branches, we may farther remark, that by the act of union, 5 Ann. c. 8, two preceding ſtatutes are recited and confirmed; the one of the parliament of Scotland, the other of the parliament of England; which enact, the former, that every king at his acceſſion ſhall take and ſubſcribe an oath, to preſerve the Proteſtant religion, and Preſbyterian church government in Scotland: the latter, that, at his coronation, he ſhall take and ſubſcribe a ſimilar oath, to preſerve the ſettlement of the church of England within England, Ireland, Wales, and Berwick, and the territories thereunto belonging.

The king of Great Britain, notwithſtanding the limitations of the power of the crown, already mentioned, is the greateſt monarch reigning over a free people. His perſon is ſacred in the eye of the law, which makes it high treaſon ſo much as to imagine or intend his death; neither can he, in himſelf, be deemed guilty of any crime, the law taking no cogniſance of his actions, but only in the perſons of his miniſters, if they infringe the laws of the land. As to his power, it is very great, though he has no right to extend his prerogative beyond the ancient limits or the boundaries preſcribed by the conſtitution; he can make no new laws, nor raiſe any new taxes, nor act in oppoſition to any of the laws; but he can make war or peace; ſend and receive ambaſſadors; make treaties of league and commerce; levy armies, and fit out fleets, for the defence of his kingdom, the annoyance of his enemies, or the ſuppreſſion of rebellions; grant commiſſions to his officers, both by ſea and land, or revoke them at pleaſure; diſpoſe of all magazines, caſtles, &c. ſummon the parliament to meet, and, when met, adjourn, prorogue, or diſſolve it at pleaſure; refuſe his aſſent to any bill, though it had paſſed both houſes; which, conſequently, by ſuch a refuſal, has no more force than if it had never been moved; but this is a prerogative that the kings of England have very ſeldom ventured to exerciſe. He poſſeſſeth the right of chuſing his own council; of nominating all the great officers of ſtate, of the houſehold, and the church; and, in fine, is the fountain of honour, from whom all degrees of nobility and knighthood are derived. Such is the dignity and power of a king of Great Britain.

Of the Parliament.] Parliaments, or general councils, in ſome ſhape, are, as has been before obſerved, of as high antiquity as the Saxon government in this iſland, and coeval with the kingdom itſelf. Blackſtone, in his valuable Commentaries, ſays, "It is generally agreed, that in the main the conſtitution of parliament, as it now ſtands, was marked out ſo long ago as the 17th of king John, A. D. 1215, in the Great Charter granted by that prince; wherein he promiſes to ſummon all archbiſhops, biſhops, abbots, lords, and greater barons perſonally; and all other tenants in chief under the crown, by the ſheriffs and bailiffs, to meet at a certain place, with forty days' notice, to aſſeſs aids and ſcutages when neceſſary. And this conſtitution hath ſubſiſted, in fact, at leaſt from the year 1266, 49 Henry III. there being ſtill extant writs of that date to ſummon knights, citizens, and burgeſſes to parliament."

The parliament is aſſembled by the king's writs, and its ſitting muſt not be intermitted above three years. Its conſtituent parts are, the king ſitting there in his royal political capacity, and the three eſtates of the realm; the lords ſpiritual, the lords temporal (who ſit together with the king in one houſe), and the commons, who ſit by themſelves in another. The king and theſe three eſtates, together, form the great corporation or body politic of the kingdom, of which the king is ſaid to be *caput*, *principium*, *et finis*. For, upon their coming together, the king meets them, either in perſon, or by repreſentation; without which there can be no beginning of a parliament; and he alſo has alone the power of diſſolving them.

It is highly neceſſary, for preſerving the balance of the conſtitution, that the executive power ſhould be a branch, though not the whole, of the legiſlature. The crown cannot begin of itſelf any alterations in the preſent eſtabliſhed law; but it may approve or diſapprove of the alterations ſuggeſted and conſented to by the two houſes. The legiſlative therefore cannot abridge the executive power of any rights which it now has by law, without its own conſent; ſince the law muſt perpetually ſtand as it now does, unleſs all the powers will agree to alter it. And herein indeed conſiſts the true excellence of the Engliſh government, were it maintained in its purity, that all the parts of it form a mutual check upon each other. In the legiſlature, the people are a check upon the nobility, and the nobility a check upon the people, by the mutual privilege of rejecting what the other has reſolved; while the king is a check upon both; which preſerves the executive power from encroachments.

The lords ſpiritual conſiſt of two archbiſhops and twenty-four biſhops. The lords temporal conſiſt of all the peers of the realm, the biſhops not being in ſtrictneſs held to be ſuch, but merely lords of parliament. Some of the peers ſit by deſcent, as do all ancient peers; ſome by creation, as do all the new-made ones; others, ſince the union with Scotland, by election, which is the caſe of the ſixteen peers who repreſent the body of the Scots nobility. The number of peers is indefinite, and may be increaſed at will, by the power of the crown.

A body of nobility is more peculiarly neceſſary in our mixed and compounded conſtitution, in order to ſupport the rights of both the crown and the people, by forming a barrier to withſtand the encroachments of both. It creates and preſerves that gradual ſcale of dignity, which proceeds from the peaſant to the prince; riſing like a pyramid from a broad foundation, and diminiſhing to a point as it riſes. The nobility therefore are the pillars which are reared from among the people, more immediately to ſupport the throne; and if that falls, they muſt alſo be buried under its ruins. Accordingly, when in the laſt century the commons had determined to extirpate monarchy, they alſo voted the houſe of lords to be uſeleſs and dangerous.

The

The commons conſiſt of all ſuch men of any property in the kingdom, as have not ſeats in the houſe of lords; every one of whom has a voice in parliament, either perſonally, or by his repreſentatives *. In a free ſtate, every man who is ſuppoſed a free agent, ought to be, in ſome meaſure, his own governor; and therefore a branch at leaſt of the legiſlative power ſhould reſide in the whole body of the people. In ſo large a ſtate as ours, it is very wiſely contrived that the people ſhould do that by their repreſentative, which it is impracticable to perform in perſon,—repreſentatives choſen by a number of minute and ſeparate diſtricts, wherein all the voters are, or eaſily may be, diſtinguiſhed. The counties are therefore repreſented by knights, elected by the proprietors of lands: the cities and boroughs are repreſented by citizens and burgeſſes, choſen by the mercantile part, or ſuppoſed trading intereſt of the nation †. The number of Engliſh repreſentatives is 513, and of Scots, 45; in all, 558. And every member though choſen by one particular diſtrict, when elected and returned, ſerves for the whole realm. For the end of his coming thither is not particular, but general: not merely to ſerve his conſtituents, but alſo the commonwealth, and to adviſe his majeſty, as appears from the writ of ſummons.

Theſe are the conſtituent parts of a parliament, the king, the lords ſpiritual and temporal, and the commons; parts, of which each is ſo neceſſary that the conſent of all three is required to make any new law that ſhould bind the ſubject. Whatever is enacted for law by one, or by two only, of the three, is no ſtatute; and to it no regard is due, unleſs in matters relating to their own privileges.

The power and juriſdiction of parliament, ſays ſir Edward Coke, is ſo tranſcendent and abſolute, that it cannot be confined, either for cauſes or perſons, within any bounds. It hath ſovereign and uncontroulable authority in making, confirming, enlarging, reſtraining, abrogating, repealing, reviving, and expounding of laws, concerning matters of all poſſible denominations, eccleſiaſtical or temporal, civil, military, maritime, or criminal: this being the place where that abſolute deſpotic power, which muſt in all governments reſide ſomewhere, is intruſted by the conſtitution of theſe kingdoms. All miſchiefs and grievances, oppreſſions and remedies, that tranſcend the ordinary courſe of the laws, are within the reach of this extraordinary tribunal. It can regulate or new model the ſucceſſion to the crown; as was done in the reign of Henry VIII. and William III. It can alter and eſtabliſh the religion of the land; as was done in a variety of inſtances in the reign of Henry VIII. and his three children, Edward VI. Mary, and Elziabeth. It can change and create afreſh even the conſtitution of the kingdom, and of parliaments themſelves; as

* This muſt be underſtood with ſome limitation. Thoſe who are poſſeſſed of land of 40s. though to the value of only 40s. per annum, have a right to vote for members of parliament; as have moſt of the members of corporations, boroughs, &c. But there are very large trading towns, and populous places, which ſend no members to parliament; and of thoſe towns which do ſend members, great numbers of the inhabitants have no votes. Many thouſand perſons of great perſonal property have, therefore, no repreſentatives. Indeed the inequality and defectiveneſs of the repreſentation has been juſtly conſidered as one of the greateſt imperfections in the Engliſh conſtitution. The duration of parliaments being extended to ſeven years, has alſo been viewed in the ſame light.

† Copy of the bribery oath, which is adminiſtered to every perſon before they poll: "I do ſwear (or, being one of the people called Quakers, do ſolemnly affirm) I have not received or had, by myſelf, or any perſon whatſoever in truſt for me, or for my uſe and benefit, directly, or indirectly, any ſum or ſums of money, office, place, or employment, gift or reward, or any promiſe or ſecurity for any money, office, or employment, or gift, in order to give my vote at this election; and that I have not before been polled at this election. So help me God."

was done by the act of union, and the several statutes for triennial and septennial elections. It can, in short, do every thing that is not naturally impossible; and therefore some have not scrupled to call its power, by a figure rather too bold, the *omnipotence of parliament*. But then their power, however great, was given them in trust, and therefore ought to be employed according to the rules of justice, and for the promotion of the general welfare of the people. And it is a matter most essential to the liberties of the kingdom, that such members be delegated to this important trust, as are most eminent for their probity, their fortitude, and their knowledge; for it was a known apophthegm of the great lord treasurer Burleigh, "that England could never be ruined but by a parliament;" and, as sir Mathew Hale observes, this being the highest and greatest court, over which none other can have jurisdiction in the kingdom, if by any means a misgovernment should any way fall upon it, the subjects of this kingdom are left without all manner of legal remedy.

In order to prevent the mischiefs that might arise by placing this extensive authority in hands that are either incapable or else improper to manage it, it is provided, that no one shall sit or vote in either house of parliament, unless he be twenty-one years of age. To prevent innovations in religion and government, it is enacted, that no member shall vote or sit in either house, till he hath, in the presence of the house, taken the oaths of allegiance, supremacy, and abjuration; and subscribed and repeated the declaration against transubstantiation, the invocation of saints, and the sacrifice of the mass. To prevent dangers that may arise to the kingdom from foreign attachments, connections, or dependencies, it is enacted, that no alien, born out of the dominions of the crown of Great Britain, even though he be naturalised, shall be capable of being a member of either house of parliament.

Some of the most important privileges of the members of either house are, privilege of speech, of person, of their domestics, and their lands and goods. As to the first, privilege of speech, it is declared by the statute of 1 W. & M. st. 2, c. 2, as one of the liberties of the people, "that the freedom of speech, and debates, and proceedings in parliament, ought not to be impeached or questioned in any court or place out of parliament." And this freedom of speech is particularly demanded of the king in person, by the speaker of the house of commons, at the opening of every new parliament. So are the other privileges, of person, servants, lands, and goods. This includes not only privilege from illegal violence, but also from legal arrests, and seizures by process from the courts of law. To assault by violence a member of either house, or his menial servants, is a high contempt of parliament, and there punished with the utmost severity. Neither can any member of either house be arrested and taken into custody, nor served with any process of the courts of law; nor can his menial servants be arrested; nor can any entry be made on his lands; nor can his goods be distrained or seized, without a breach of the privilege of parliament*.

The house of lords have a right to be attended, and consequently are, by the judges of the courts of king's bench and common pleas, and such of the barons of the exchequer as are of the degree of the coif, or have been made serjeants at law, as likewise by the masters of the court of

* This exemption from arrests for lawful debts was always considered by the public as a grievance. The lords and commons therefore generously relinquished their privileges by act of parliament in 1770; and members of both houses may now be sued like other debtors.

chancery,

chancery, for their advice in points of law, and for the greater dignity of their proceedings.

The ſpeaker of the houſe of lords is generally the lord chancellor, or lord keeper of the great ſeal, which dignities are commonly veſted in the ſame perſon.

Each peer has a right, by leave of the houſe, as being his own repreſentative, when a vote paſſes contrary to his ſentiments, to enter his diſſent on the journals of the houſe, with the reaſons of ſuch diſſent; which is uſually ſtyled his proteſt. Upon particular occaſions, however, theſe proteſts have been ſo bold as to give offence to the majority of the houſe, and have therefore been expunged from their journals; but this has always been thought a violent meaſure, and not very conſiſtent with the general right of proteſting.

The houſe of commons may be properly ſtyled the grand inqueſt of Great Britain, impowered to inquire into all national grievances, in order to ſee them redreſſed.

The peculiar laws and cuſtoms of the houſe of commons relate principally to the raiſing of taxes, and the elections of members to ſerve in parliament.

With regard to taxes: it is the ancient indiſputable privilege and right of the houſe of commons, that all grants of ſubſidies, or parliamentary aids, do begin in their houſe, and are firſt beſtowed by them; although their grants are not effectual to all intents and purpoſes, until they have the aſſent of the other two branches of the legiſlature. The general reaſon given for this excluſive privilege of the houſe of commons is, that the ſupplies are raiſed upon the body of the people, and therefore it is proper that they alone ſhould have the right of taxing themſelves.

The method of making laws is much the ſame in both houſes. In each houſe, the act of the majority binds the whole; and this majority is declared by votes publicly and openly given; not, as at Venice, and many other ſenatorial aſſemblies, privately or by ballot. This latter method may be ſerviceable, to prevent intrigues and unconſtitutional combinations; but it is impoſſible to be practiſed with us, at leaſt in the houſe of commons, where every member's conduct is ſubject to the future cenſure of his conſtituents, and therefore ſhould be openly ſubmitted to their inſpection.

To bring a bill into the houſe of commons, if the relief ſought by it is of a private nature, it is firſt neceſſary to prefer a petition, which muſt be preſented by a member, and uſually ſets forth the grievance deſired to be remedied. This petition (when founded on facts that may be in their nature diſputed) is referred to a committee of members, who examine the matter alleged, and accordingly report it to the houſe; and then (or, otherwiſe, upon the mere petition) leave is given to bring in the bill. In public matters, the bill is brought in upon motion made to the houſe without any petition. (In the houſe of lords, if the bill begins there, it is, when of a private nature, referred to two of the judges, to examine and report the ſtate of the facts alleged, to ſee that all neceſſary parties conſent, and to ſettle all points of technical propriety.) This is read a firſt time, and, at a convenient diſtance, a ſecond time; and after each reading, the ſpeaker opens to the houſe the ſubſtance of the bill, and puts the queſtion whether it ſhall proceed any farther. The introduction of the bill may be originally oppoſed, as the bill itſelf may at either of the readings; and if the oppoſition ſucceeds, the bill muſt be dropt for that ſeſſion; as it muſt alſo, if oppoſed with ſucceſs in any of the ſubſequent ſtages.

After the ſecond reading, it is committed, that is, referred to a committee, which is either ſelected by the houſe, in matters of ſmall importance,

or elſe, if the bill is a matter of great or national conſequence, the houſe reſolves itſelf into a committee of the whole houſe. A committee of the whole houſe is compoſed of every member; and, to form it, the ſpeaker quits the chair (another member being appointed chairman), and may ſit and debate as a private member. In theſe committees, the bill is debated, clauſe by clauſe, amendments made, the blanks filled up, and ſometimes the bill is entirely new modelled. After it has gone through the committee, the chairman reports it to the houſe, with ſuch amendments as the committee have made; and then the houſe reconſider the whole bill again, and the queſtion is repeatedly put upon every clauſe and amendment. When the houſe have agreed or diſagreed to the amendments of the committee, and ſometimes added new amendments of their own, the bill is then ordered to be engroſſed, or written in a ſtrong groſs hand, on one or more long rolls of parchment ſewed together. When this is finiſhed, it is read a third time, and amendments are ſometimes then made to it; and, if a new clauſe be added, it is done by tacking a ſeparate piece of parchment on the bill, which is called a rider. The ſpeaker then again opens the contents: and holding it up in his hands, puts the queſtion whether the bill ſhall paſs. If this be agreed to, the title to it is then ſettled. After this it is carried to the lords, for their concurrence, by one of the members, who, attended by ſeveral more, preſents it at the bar of the houſe of peers, and there delivers it to their ſpeaker, who comes down from his woolſack to receive it. It there paſſes through the ſame forms as in the other houſe (except engroſſing, which is already done), and if rejected, no more notice is taken, but it paſſes *ſub ſilentio*, to prevent unbecoming altercations. But if it be agreed to, the lords ſend a meſſage by two maſters in chancery (or ſometimes, in matters of high importance, by two of the judges) that they have agreed to the ſame: and the bill remains with the lords, if they have made no amendment to it. But if any amendments are made, ſuch amendments are ſent down with the bill to receive the concurrence of the commons. If the commons diſagree to the amendments, a conference uſually follows between members deputed from each houſe, who, for the moſt part, ſettle and adjuſt the difference; but if both houſes remain inflexible, the bill is dropped. If the commons agree to the amendments, the bill is ſent back to the lords by one of the members, with a meſſage to acquaint them therewith. The ſame forms are obſerved, *mutatis mutandis*, when the bill begins in the houſe of lords. But when an act of grace or pardon is paſſed, it is firſt ſigned by his majeſty, and then read once only in each of the houſes, without any new engroſſing or amendment. And when both houſes have done with any bill, it always is depoſited in the houſe of peers, to wait the royal aſſent; except in the caſe of a money bill, which, after receiving the concurrence of the lords, is ſent back to the houſe of commons. It may be neceſſary here to acquaint the reader, that both in the houſes, and in their committees, the ſlighteſt expreſſion, or moſt minute alteration, does not paſs till the ſpeaker or the chairman puts the queſtion; which, in the houſe of commons, is anſwered by *aye* or *no*; and in the houſe of peers, by *content* or *not content*.

The giving the royal aſſent to bills is a matter of great form. When the king is to paſs bills in perſon, he appears on his throne in the houſe of peers, in his royal robes, with the crown on his head, and attended by his great officers of ſtate, and heralds. A ſeat on the right hand of the throne, where the princes of Scotland, when peers of England, formerly ſat, is reſerved for the prince of Wales. The other princes of the blood ſit on the left hand of the king, and the chancellor on a cloſe bench removed a little backwards. The viſcounts and temporal barons, or lords,

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face the throne, on benches, or wool-packs, covered with red cloth or baize. The bench of biſhops runs along the houſe, to the bar on the right hand of the throne; as the dukes and earls do on the left. The chancellor and judges, on ordinary days, ſit upon wool-packs, between the barons and the throne. The common opinion is, that the houſe ſitting on wool, is ſymbolical of wool being formerly the ſtaple commodity of the kingdom. Many of the peers, on ſolemn occaſions, appear in their parliamentary robes. None of the commons have any robes, excepting the ſpeaker, who wears a long black ſilk gown; and when he appears before the king, it is trimmed with gold.

The royal aſſent may be given two ways; 1. In perſon. When the king ſends for the houſe of commons to the houſe of peers, the ſpeaker carries up the money-bill or bills in his hand; and, in delivering them, he addreſſes his majeſty in a ſolemn ſpeech, in which he ſeldom fails to extol the generoſity and loyalty of the commons, and to tell his majeſty how neceſſary it is to be frugal of the public money. It is upon this occaſion, that the commons of Great Britain appear in their higheſt luſtre. The titles of all bills that have paſſed both houſes are read; and the king's anſwer is declared by the clerk of the parliament in Norman French. If the king conſents to a public bill, the clerk uſually declares, *le roy le veut*, "the king wills it ſo to be:" if to a private bill, *ſoit fait come il eſt deſiré*, "be it as it is deſired." If the king refuſes his aſſent, it is in the gentle language of *le roy s'aviſera*, "the king will adviſe upon it." When a money-bill is paſſed, it is carried up and preſented to the king by the ſpeaker of the houſe of commons, and the royal aſſent is thus expreſſed, *le roy remercie ſes loyal ſubjects, accepte leur benevolence, et auſſi le veut*, "the "king thanks his loyal ſubjects, accepts their benevolence, and wills it "ſo to be." In caſe of an act of grace, which originally proceeds from the crown, and has the royal aſſent in the firſt ſtage of it, the clerk of the parliament thus pronounces the gratitude of the ſubject; *les prelats, ſeigneurs, et commons, en ce preſent parliament aſſembles, au nom de tout vos autres ſubjects, remercient tres humblement votre majeſté: et prient à Dieu vous donner en ſanté bonne vie et longue*: "the prelates, lords, and commons, in this preſent parliament aſſembled, in the name of all your other ſubjects, moſt humbly thank your majeſty, and pray to God to grant you in health and wealth long to live." 2. By the ſtatute 33 Henry VIII. c. 21, the king may give his aſſent by letters patent under his great ſeal, ſigned with his hand, and notified, in his abſence, to both houſes aſſembled together in the high houſe, by commiſſioners, conſiſting of certain peers named in the letters. And, when the bill has received the royal aſſent in either of theſe ways, it is then, and not before, a ſtatute or act of parliament.

The ſtatute or act is placed among the records of the kingdom; there needing no formal promulgation to give it the force of a law, as was neceſſary by the civil law with regard to the emperor's edicts; becauſe every man in England is, in judgment of law, party to the making of an act of parliament, being preſent thereat by his repreſentatives. However copies thereof are uſually printed at the king's preſs, for the information of the whole land.

From the above general view of the Engliſh conſtitution, it appears, that no ſecurity for its permanency, which the wit of man can deviſe, is wanting. If it ſhould be objected, that parliaments may become ſo corrupted, as to give up or betray the liberties of the people, the anſwer is, that parliaments, as every other body politic, are ſuppoſed to watch over

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their political exiſtence, as a private perſon does his natural life. If a parliament was to act in that manner, it muſt become *felo de ſe*, an evil that no human proviſions can guard againſt. But there are great reſources of liberty in England; and though the conſtitution has been even overturned, and ſometimes dangerouſly wounded, yet its own innate powers have recovered and ſtill preſerve it. Monſ. Mezeray, the famous hiſtorian, ſaid to a countryman of ours, in the cloſe of the laſt century, "We had once in France the ſame happineſs and the ſame privileges which you have; *our laws were then made by repreſentatives of* OUR OWN *chuſing; therefore our money was not taken from us, but granted by us.* Our kings were then ſubject to the rules of law and reaſon:—now, alas! we are miſerable, and all is loſt. Think nothing, ſir, too dear to maintain theſe precious advantages; if ever there ſhould be occaſion, venture your life and eſtate rather than baſely and fooliſhly ſubmit to that abject condition to which you ſee us reduced."

The king of England, beſides his high court of parliament, has ſubordinate officers and miniſters to aſſiſt him, and who are reſponſible for their advice and conduct. They are made by the king's nomination, without either patent or grant; and, on taking the neceſſary oaths, they become immediately privy-counſellors during the life of the king that chuſes them, but ſubject to removal at his direction.

The duty of a privy-counſellor appears from the oath of office, which conſiſts of ſeven articles. 1. To adviſe the king according to the beſt of his cunning and diſcretion. 2. To adviſe for the king's honour, and good of the public, without partiality, through affection, love, need, doubt, or dread. 3. To keep the king's counſel ſecret. 4. To avoid corruption. 5. To help and ſtrengthen the execution of what ſhall be there reſolved. 6. To withſtand all perſons who would attempt the contrary. And, laſtly, in general, 7. To obſerve, keep, and do all that a good and true counſellor ought to do to his ſovereign lord.

As no government can be ſo complete as to be provided with laws that may anſwer every unforeſeen emergency, the privy-council, in ſuch caſes, can ſupply the deficiency. It has been even known, that, upon great and urgent occaſions, ſuch as that of a famine or the dread of one, they can ſuperſede the operation of the law, if the parliament is not ſitting; but this is conſidered as illegal, and an act of parliament muſt paſs for the pardon and indemnification of thoſe concerned.

The office of ſecretary of ſtate is at preſent divided into a ſouthern and a northern department. The ſouthern contains France, Spain, Portugal, Italy, the Swiſs Cantons, Conſtantinople, and, in ſhort, all the ſtates in the ſouthern parts. The northern comprehends the different ſtates of Germany, Pruſſia, Poland, Ruſſia, Sweden, Denmark, Holland, Flanders, and the Hanſeatic towns.

With regard to the capital acts of government which were formerly intruſted with the ſecretaries of ſtate, a committee of the privy-council, commonly called a cabinet-council, are chiefly intruſted. This cabinet generally conſiſts of a ſelect number of miniſters and noblemen, according to the king's opinion of their integrity and abilities, or attachment to the views of the court; but though its operations are powerful and extenſive, a cabinet-council is not eſſential to the conſtitution of England.

This obſervation naturally leads me to mention the perſon who is ſo well known by the name of the *firſt miniſter*; a term unknown to the Engliſh conſtitution, though the office, in effect, is, perhaps, neceſſary. The conſtitution points out the lord high chancellor as miniſter; but the

affairs

affairs of his own court give him ſufficient employment. When the office of the firſt lord of the treaſury is united with that of chancellor of the exchequer (offices which I am to explain hereafter) in the ſame perſon, he is conſidered as firſt miniſter. The truth is, his majeſty may make any of his ſervants his firſt miniſter. But though it is no office, yet there is a reſponſibility annexed to the name and common repute, that renders it a poſt of difficulty and danger. I ſhall now take a ſhort review of the nine great officers of the crown, who, by their poſts, take place next to the princes of the royal family and the two primates.

The firſt is the lord high ſteward of England. This is an office very ancient, and formerly was hereditary, or at leaſt for life: but now, and for centuries paſt, it is exerciſed only occaſionally; that is, at a coronation, or to ſit as judge on a peer or peereſs, when tried for a capital crime. In coronations, it is held for that day only, by ſome high nobleman. In caſes of trials, it is exerciſed generally by the lord chancellor, or lord keeper, whoſe commiſſion as high ſteward ends with the trial, by breaking his white rod, the badge of his office.

The lord high chancellor preſides in the court of chancery, to moderate the ſeverities of the law, in all caſes where the property of the ſubject is concerned; and he is to determine according to the dictates of equity and reaſon. He is an officer of the greateſt weight and power of any now ſubſiſting in the kingdom, and is ſuperior in precedency to every temporal lord. He is a privy-counſellor by his office, and, according to ſome, prolocutor of the houſe of lords by preſcription. To him belongs the appointment of all juſtices of the peace; he is viſitor, in right of the king, of all hoſpitals and colleges of the king's foundation, and patron of all the king's livings under the value of 20l. per annum in the king's books. He is the general guardian of all infants, idiots, and lunatics, and hath the ſuperintendance of all charitable uſes in the kingdom, over and above the extenſive juriſdiction which he exerciſes in his judicial capacity in the court of chancery.

The poſt of lord high treaſurer has of late been veſted in a commiſſion, conſiſting of five perſons, who are called lords of the treaſury; but the firſt commiſſioner is ſuppoſed to poſſeſs the power of lord high treaſurer. He has the management and charge of all the revenues of the crown kept in the exchequer; as alſo the letting of the leaſes of all crown lands, and the gift of all places belonging to the cuſtoms in the ſeveral ports of the kingdom.

The lord preſident of the council was an officer formerly of great power, and hath precedence next after the lord chancellor and lord treaſurer. His duty is to propoſe all the buſineſs tranſacted at the council-board, and to report to the king, when his majeſty is not preſent, all its debates and proceedings. It is a place of great dignity as well as difficulty, on account of the vaſt number of American and Weſt India cauſes, captures, and the like affairs that come before the board: all which may be abridged, to the vaſt convenience of the ſubject, by an able preſident.

The office of lord privy-ſeal conſiſts in his putting the king's ſeal to all charters, grants, and the like, which are ſigned by the king, in order to their paſſing the great ſeal; and he is reſponſible if he ſhould apply the privy-ſeal to any thing againſt the law of the land.

The office of lord great chamberlain of England is hereditary in the duke of Ancaſter's family. He attends the king's perſon, on his coronation, to dreſs him: he has likewiſe charge of the houſe of lords during the ſitting of parliament; and of fitting up Weſtminſter-hall for coronations, or trials of peers.

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The office of lord high conſtable has been diſuſed ſince the attainder and execution of Strafford duke of Buckingham, in the year 1521, but is occaſionally revived for a coronation.

The duke of Norfolk is hereditary earl marſhal of England. Before England became ſo commercial a country as it has been for a hundred years paſt, this office required great abilities, learning, and knowledge of the Engliſh hiſtory, for its diſcharge. In war time he was judge of army cauſes, and decided according to the principles of the civil law. If the cauſe did not admit of ſuch a deciſion, it was left to a perſonal combat, which was attended with a vaſt variety of ceremonies; the arrangement of which, even to the ſmalleſt trifle, fell within the marſhal's province. To this day he or his deputy regulates all points of precedency according to the archives kept in the herald's office, which is entirely within his juriſdiction. He directs all ſolemn proceſſions, coronations, proclamations, general mournings, and the like.

The office of lord high admiral of England * is now likewiſe held by commiſſion, and is equal in its importance to any of the preceding, eſpecially ſince the growth of the Britiſh naval power. The Engliſh admiralty is a board of direction as well as execution, and is in its proceedings independent of the crown itſelf. All trials upon life and death, in maritime affairs, are appointed and held under a commiſſion immediately iſſuing from that board: and the members muſt ſign even the death-warrants for execution; but it may be eaſily conceived, that, as they are removable at pleaſure, they do nothing that can claſh with the prerogative of the crown, and conform themſelves to the directions they receive from his majeſty. The board of admiralty regulates the whole naval force of the realm, and names all their officers, or confirms them when named: ſo that its juriſdiction is very extenſive. They appoint vice-admirals under them; but an appeal from them lies to the high court of admiralty, which is of a civil nature. London is the place where it is held; and all its proceſſes and proceedings run in the lord high admiral's name, or thoſe of the commiſſioners, and not in that of the king. The judge of this court is commonly a doctor of the civil law, and its proceedings are according to the method of the civil law; but all criminal matters, relating to piracies, and other capital offences committed at ſea, are tried and determined according to the laws of England, by witneſſes and a jury, ever ſince the reign of Henry VIII. It now remains to treat of the courts of law in England.

COURTS OF LAW.] The court of chancery, which is the court of equity, is next in dignity to the high court of parliament, and is deſigned to relieve the ſubject againſt frauds, breaches of truſt, and other oppreſſions, and to mitigate the rigour of the law. The lord high chancellor ſits as ſole judge, and, in his abſence, the maſter of the rolls. The form of proceeding is by bills, anſwers, and decrees; the witneſſes being examined in private: however, the decrees of this court are only binding to the perſons of thoſe concerned in them, for they do not affect their lands and goods; and, conſequently, if a man refuſes to comply with the terms, they can do nothing more than ſend him to the priſon of the Fleet. This court is always open; and if a man be ſent to priſon, the lord chancellor, in any vacation, can, if he ſees reaſon for it, grant a *habeas corpus*.

The clerk of the crown likewiſe belongs to this court, he, or his deputy, being obliged always to attend on the lord chancellor as often as he ſits for the diſpatch of buſineſs. Through his hands paſs all writs for ſummon-

* The laſt lord high admiral was George prince of Denmark, and huſband to queen Anne.

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ing the parliament or chooſing of members, commiſſions of the peace, pardons, &c.

The King's Bench, ſo called either from the kings of England ſometimes ſitting there in perſon, or becauſe all matters determinable by common law between the king and his ſubjects are here tried, except ſuch affairs as properly belong to the court of Exchequer. This court is, likewiſe, a kind of check upon all the inferior courts, their judges, and juſtices of the peace. Here preſide four judges, the firſt of whom is ſtyled lord chief juſtice of England, to expreſs the great extent of his juriſdiction over the kingdom: for this court can grant prohibitions in any cauſe depending either in ſpiritual or temporal courts; and the houſe of peers does often direct the lord chief juſtice to iſſue out his warrant for apprehending perſons under ſuſpicion of high crimes. The other three judges are called juſtices or judges of the King's Bench.

The court of Common Pleas takes cogniſance of all pleas debatable, and civil actions depending between ſubject and ſubject; and in it, beſides, all real actions, fines, and recoveries are tranſacted, and prohibitions are likewiſe iſſued out of it, as well as from the King's Bench. The firſt judge of this court is ſtyled lord chief juſtice of the Common Pleas, or common bench: beſide whom there are likewiſe three other judges, or juſtices of this court. None but ſerjeants at law are allowed to plead here.

The court of Exchequer was inſtituted for managing the revenues of the crown, and has a power of judging both according to law and according to equity. In the proceedings according to law, the lord chief baron of the Exchequer, and three other barons, preſide as judges. They are ſtyled barons, becauſe formerly none but barons of the realm were allowed to be judges in this court. Beſide theſe, there is a fifth, called curſitor baron, who has not a judicial capacity, but is only employed in adminiſtering the oath to ſheriffs and other officers, and alſo to ſeveral of the officers of the cuſtom-houſe. But when this court proceeds according to equity, then the lord treaſurer and the chancellor of the Exchequer preſide, aſſiſted by the other barons. All matters touching the king's treaſury, revenue, cuſtoms, and fines, are here tried and determined. Beſides the officers already mentioned, there belong to the Exchequer, the king's remembrancer, who takes and ſtates all accounts of the revenue, cuſtoms, exciſe, parliamentary aids and ſubſidies, &c. except the accounts of the ſheriffs and their officers; the lord treaſurer's remembrancer, whoſe buſineſs it is to make out proceſſes againſt ſheriffs, receivers of the revenue, and other officers.

For putting the laws effectually in execution, a high-sheriff is annually appointed for every county (except Weſtmoreland and Middleſex) by the king *; whoſe office is both miniſterial and judicial. He is to execute the king's mandate, and all writs directed to him out of the king's courts of juſtice; to impanel juries, to bring cauſes and malefactors to trial; to ſee ſentence, both in civil and criminal affairs, executed; and at the aſſize to attend the judges, and guard them all the time they are in his county. He is likewiſe to decide the elections of knights of the ſhire, of coroners and verderers; to judge of the qualifications of voters, and to return ſuch as he ſhall determine to be duly elected. It is alſo part of his office to collect all public fines, diſtreſſes, amerciaments, into the Exchequer, or where the king ſhall appoint, and to make ſuch payments out of them as his majeſty ſhall think proper.

* Sheriffs were formerly choſen by the inhabitants of the ſeveral counties. In ſome counties the ſheriffs were formerly hereditary, and ſtill continue in the county of Weſtmoreland. The city of London hath alſo the inheritance of the ſhrievalty of Middleſex veſted in their body by charter.

As his office is judicial, he keeps a court, called the county court, which is held by the ſheriff, or his under ſheriffs, to hear and determine all civil cauſes in the county, under forty ſhillings: this, however, is no court of record; but the court, formerly called the ſheriff's tourn, was one; and the king's leet, through all the county: for in this court inquiry was made into all criminal offences againſt the common law, where by the ſtatute law there was no reſtraint. This court, however, has been long ſince aboliſhed. As the keeper of the king's peace, both by common law and ſpecial commiſſion, he is the firſt man in the county, and ſuperior in rank to any nobleman therein, during his office. He may command all the people of his county to attend him, which is called the *poſſe comitatus*, or power of the county.

Under the ſheriff are various officers, as the under-ſheriffs, clerks, ſtewards of courts, bailiffs (in London called ſerjeants) conſtables, goalers, beadles, &c.

The next officer to the ſheriff is the *juſtice of peace*, ſeveral of whom are commiſſioned for each county: and to them is intruſted the power of putting great part of the ſtatute law in execution, in relation to the highways, the poor, vagrants, treaſons, felonies, riots, the preſervation of the game, &c. &c. and they examine and commit to priſon all who break or diſturb the peace, and diſquiet the king's ſubjects. In order to puniſh the offenders, they meet every quarter at the county-town, when a jury of twelve men, called the grand inqueſt of the county, is ſummoned to appear. This jury, upon oath, is to inquire into the caſes of all delinquents, and to preſent them by bill, guilty of the indictment, or not guilty: the juſtices commit the former to gaol for their trial at the next aſſizes, and the latter are acquitted. This is called the quarter-ſeſſions for the county. The juſtice of peace ought to be a perſon of great good ſenſe, ſagacity, and integrity, and to be not without ſome knowledge of the law: for, as much power is lodged in his hands, and as nothing is ſo intoxicating, without theſe qualifications, he will be apt to make miſtakes, and to ſtep beyond his authority; for which he is indeed liable to be called to an account at the court of King's Bench.

Each county contains two *coroners*, who are to inquire, by a jury of neighbours, how and by whom any perſon came by a violent death, and to enter it on record as a plea of the crown. Another branch of his office is to inquire concerning ſhipwreck, and certify whether wreck or not, and who is in poſſeſſion of the goods. In his miniſterial office, he is the ſheriff's ſubſtitute.

The civil government of cities is a kind of ſmall independent policy of itſelf; for every city hath, by charter from the king, a juriſdiction within itſelf, to judge in all matters civil and criminal: with this reſtraint only, that all civil cauſes may be removed from their courts to the higher courts at Weſtminſter; and all offences that are capital are committed to the judge of the aſſize. The government of cities differs according to their different charters, immunities, and conſtitutions. They are conſtituted with a mayor, aldermen, and burgeſſes, who, together, make the corporation of the city, and hold a court of judicature, where the mayor preſides as judge. Some cities are counties, and chuſe their own ſheriffs; and all of them have a power of making bye-laws for their own government. Some have thought the government of cities, by mayor, aldermen, and common-council, is an epitome of the Engliſh government, by king, lords, and commons.

The government of incorporated boroughs is much after the ſame manner: in ſome there is a mayor, and in others two bailiffs; all which, during

ing their mayoralty or magiſtracy, are juſtices of the peace within their liberties, and conſequently eſquires.

The cinque-ports are five havens, formerly eſteemed moſt important ones, that lie on the eaſt part of England towards France, as Dover, Sandwich, Romney, Haſtings, and Hythe, to which Winchelſea and Rye have been ſince added, with ſimilar franchiſes in many reſpects. Theſe cinque ports were endowed with particular privileges by our ancient kings, upon condition that they ſhould provide a certain number of ſhips, at their own charge, to ſerve in the wars for forty days, as often as they were wanted.

For the better government of villages, the lords of the ſoil or manor (who were formerly called barons) have generally a power to hold courts, called courts-leet and courts-baron, where their tenants are obliged to attend and receive juſtice. The buſineſs of courts-leet is chiefly to preſent and puniſh nuiſances; and at courts-baron the conveyances and alienations of the copyhold tenants are enrolled, and they are admitted to their eſtates on deſcent or purchaſe.

A *conſtable* is a very ancient and reſpectable officer of the peace, under the Engliſh conſtitution. Every hundred has a high-conſtable, and every pariſh in that hundred a conſtable; and they are to attend the high-conſtable upon proper occaſions. They are aſſiſted by another ancient officer, called the tythingman, who formerly ſuperintended the tenth part of an hundred, or ten free burghs, as they were called in the time of the Saxons, and each free burgh conſiſting of ten families. The buſineſs of conſtable is to keep the peace in all caſes of quarrels and riots. He can impriſon offenders till they are brought before a juſtice of peace; and it is his duty to execute, within his diſtrict, every warrant that is directed to him from that magiſtrate, or a bench of juſtices. The neglect of the old Saxon courts, both for the preſervation of the peace, and the more eaſy recovery of ſmall debts, has been regretted by many eminent lawyers; and it has of late been found neceſſary to revive ſome of them, and to appoint others of a ſimilar nature.

Beſides theſe, there are courts of conſcience ſettled in many parts of England, for the relief of the poor, in the recovery of payment of ſmall debts, not exceeding forty ſhillings.

There neither is, nor ever was, any conſtitution provided with ſo many fences, as that of England is, for the ſecurity of perſonal liberty. Every man impriſoned has a right to bring a writ before a judge at Weſtminſter-hall, called his Habeas Corpus. If that judge, after conſidering the cauſe of commitment, ſhall find that the offence is bailable, the party is immediately admitted to bail, till he is condemned or acquitted in a proper court of juſtice.

The rights of individuals are ſo attentively conſidered, that the ſubject may, without the leaſt danger, ſue his ſovereign, or thoſe who act in his name, and under his authority: he may do this in open court, where the king may be caſt, and be obliged to pay damages to his ſubject. He cannot take away the liberty of the leaſt individual, unleſs he has, by ſome illegal act of which he is accuſed or ſuſpected upon oath, forfeited his right or liberty; or except when the ſtate is in danger, and the repreſentatives of the people think the public ſafety makes it neceſſary that he ſhould have the power of confining perſons on ſuch a ſuſpicion of guilt; ſuch as the caſe of a rebellion within the kingdom, when the legiſlature has thought proper to paſs a temporary ſuſpenſion of the Habeas Corpus act: but this ſeldom has been done but with great difficulty and caution, and when the national ſafety has abſolutely required it. The king has a right to pardon; but neither he, nor the judges to whom he delegates his authority, can condemn a

man

man as a criminal, except he be firſt found guilty by twelve men, who muſt be his peers or his equals. That the judges may not be influenced by the king or his miniſters to miſrepreſent the caſe to the jury, they have their ſalaries for life, and not during the pleaſure of their ſovereign. Neither can the king take away or endanger the life of any ſubject, without trial, and the perſons being firſt chargeable with a capital crime, as treaſon, murder, felony, or ſome other act injurious to ſociety; nor can any ſubject be deprived of his liberty, for the higheſt crime, till ſome proof of his guilt be given upon oath before a magiſtrate; and he has then a right to inſiſt upon his being brought, the firſt opportunity, to a fair trial, or to be reſtored to liberty on giving bail for his appearance. If a man is charged with a capital offence, he muſt not undergo the ignominy of being tried for his life till the evidences of his guilt are laid before the grand jury of the town or county in which the fact is alleged to be committed, and not without twelve of them agreeing to a bill of indictment againſt him. If they do this, he is to ſtand a ſecond trial before twelve other men, whoſe opinion is definitive. By the 28 Edward III. it is enacted, that where either party is an alien born, the jury ſhall be one half aliens, and the other denizens, if required, for the more impartial trial;—a privilege indulged to ſtrangers in no other country in the world, but which is as ancient with us as the time of king Ethelred *. In ſome caſes, the man (who is always ſuppoſed innocent till there be ſufficient proof of his guilt) is allowed a copy of his indictment, in order to help him to make his defence. He is alſo furniſhed with the panel, or liſt of the jury, who are his true and proper judges, that he may learn their characters, and diſcover whether they want abilities, or whether they are prejudiced againſt him. He may in open court peremptorily object to twenty of the number †, and to as many more as he can give reaſon for their not being admitted as his judges; till at laſt twelve unexceptionable men, the neighbours of the party accuſed, or living near the place where the ſuppoſed fact was committed, are approved of, who take the following oath, that they *ſhall well and truly try, and true deliverance make between the king and the priſoners, whom they ſhall have in charge, according to the evidence.* By challenging the jury, the priſoner prevents all poſſibility of bribery, or the influence of any ſuperior power; by their living near the place where the fact was committed, they are ſuppoſed to be men who knew the priſoner's courſe of life, and the credit of the evidence. Theſe only are the judges from whoſe ſentence the priſoner is to expect life or death; and upon their integrity and underſtanding, the lives of all that are brought in danger ultimately depend; and from their judgment there lies no appeal: they are therefore to be all of one mind, and, after they have fully heard the evidence, are to be confined without meat, drink, or candle, till they are unanimous in acquitting or condemning the priſoner. Every juryman is therefore veſted with a ſolemn and awful truſt: if he without evidence ſubmits his opinion to that of any other of the jury, or yields in complaiſance to the opinion of the judge; if he neglects to examine with the utmoſt care; if he queſtions the veracity of the witneſſes, who may be of an infamous character; or after the moſt impartial hearing, has the leaſt doubt upon his mind, and yet joins in condemning the perſon accuſed; he will wound his own conſcience, and bring upon himſelf the complicated guilt of perjury and murder. The freedom of Engliſhmen conſiſts in its being out of the power of the judge on the bench to injure them, for declaring a man innocent whom he wiſhes to bring in guilty. Were not this

* Statuta de Monticolis Walliæ.

† The party may challenge thirty-five, in caſe of treaſon.

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the caſe, juries would be uſeleſs; for far from being judges themſelves, they would only be the tools of another, whoſe province is not to guide, but to give a ſanction to their determination. Tyranny might triumph over the lives and liberties of the ſubject, and the judge on the bench be the miniſter of the prince's vengeance.

Trial by jury is ſo capital a privilege, and ſo great a ſecurity to the liberty of the ſubject, it is much to be regretted, that perſons of education and property are often too ready to evade ſerving the office. By this means juries frequently conſiſt of ignorant and illiterate perſons, who neither have knowledge enough to underſtand their rights and the privileges of Engliſhmen, nor ſpirit enough to maintain them. No man ſhould be above ſerving ſo important an office, when regularly called upon; and thoſe who, from indolence or pride, decline diſcharging this duty to their country, ſeem hardly to deſerve that ſecurity and liberty which the inhabitants of this country derive from this invaluable inſtitution. Juries have, indeed, always been conſidered as giving the moſt effectual check to tyranny: for in a nation like this, where a king can do nothing againſt law, they are a ſecurity that he ſhall never make the laws, by a bad adminiſtration, the inſtruments of cruelty and oppreſſion. Were it not for juries, the advice given by father Paul, in his maxims of the republic at Venice, might take effect in its fulleſt latitude. "When the offence is committed by a nobleman againſt a ſubject," ſays he, "let all ways be tried to juſtify him; and if that is not poſſible to be done, let him be chaſtiſed with greater noiſe than damage. If it be a ſubject that has affronted a nobleman, let him be puniſhed with the utmoſt ſeverity, that the ſubjects may not get too great a cuſtom of laying their hands on the patrician order." In ſhort, was it not for juries, a corrupt nobleman might, whenever he pleaſed, act the tyrant, while the judge would have that power which is now denied to our kings. But by our happy conſtitution, which breathes nothing but liberty and equity, all imaginary indulgence is allowed to the meaneſt, as well as the greateſt. When a priſoner is brought to take his trial, he is freed from all bonds; and though the judges are ſuppoſed to be counſel for the priſoner, yet, as he may be incapable of vindicating his own cauſe, other counſel are allowed him; he may try the validity and legality of the indictment, and may ſet it aſide, if it be contrary to law. Nothing is wanted to clear up the cauſe of innocence, and to prevent the ſufferer from ſinking under the power of corrupt judges, and the oppreſſion of the great. The racks and tortures that are cruelly made uſe of in other parts of Europe, to make a man accuſe himſelf, are here unknown, and none puniſhed without conviction, but he who refuſes to plead in his own defence.

As the trial of malefactors in England is very different from that of other nations, the following account thereof may be uſeful to foreigners and others, who have not ſeen thoſe proceedings.

The court being met, and the priſoner called to the bar, the clerk commands him to hold up his hand, then charges him with the crime of which he is accuſed, and aſks him whether he is *guilty* or *not guilty*. If the priſoner anſwers *guilty*, his trial is at an end; but if he anſwers *not guilty*, the court proceeds on the trial, even though he may before have confeſſed the fact; for the law of England takes no notice of ſuch confeſſion; and unleſs the witneſſes, who are upon oath, prove him guilty of the crime, the jury muſt acquit him; for they are directed to bring in their verdict according to the evidence given in court. If the priſoner refuſes to plead, that is, if he will not ſay in court whether he is *guilty* or *not guilty*, he might, till lately, by the law of England, be preſſed to death, with a load of iron upon his breaſt.

When the witneſſes have given in their evidence, and the priſoner has by himſelf or his counſel, croſs-examined them, the judge recites to the jury the ſubſtance of the evidence given againſt the priſoner, and bids them diſcharge their conſcience; when, if the matter be very clear, they commonly give their verdict without going out of the court; and the foreman, for himſelf and the reſt, declares the priſoner *guilty* or *not guilty*, as it may happen to be. But if any doubt ariſes among the jury, and the matter requires debate, they all withdraw into a room with a copy of the indictment, where they are locked up till they are unanimouſly agreed on the verdict; and if any one of the jury ſhould die during this their confinement, the priſoner will be acquitted.

When the jury have agreed on the verdict, they inform the court thereof by an officer who waits without, and the priſoner is again ſet to the bar to hear his verdict. This is unalterable, except in ſome doubtful caſes, when the verdict is brought in *ſpecial*, and is therefore to be determined by the twelve judges of England.

If the priſoner be found guilty, he is then aſked what reaſon he can give why ſentence of death ſhould not be paſſed upon him? There is now properly no benefit of clergy; it is changed to tranſportation, or burning in the hand. Upon a capital conviction, the ſentence of death, after a ſummary account of the trial, is pronounced on the priſoner, in theſe words: *The law is, That thou ſhalt return to the place from whence thou cameſt, and from thence be carried to the place of execution, where thou ſhalt be hanged by the neck till thy body be dead: and the lord have mercy on thy ſoul:* whereupon the ſheriff is charged with the execution.

All the priſoners found *not guilty* by the jury, are immediately acquitted and diſcharged, and in ſome caſes obtain a copy of their indictment from the court, to proceed at law againſt their proſecutors.

Of PUNISHMENTS.] The law of England includes all capital crimes under *high treaſon*, *petty treaſon*, and *felony*. The firſt conſiſts in plotting, conſpiring, or riſing up in arms againſt the ſovereign, or in counterfeiting the coin. The traitor is puniſhed by being drawn on a ſledge to the place of execution, when, after being hanged upon a gallows for ſome minutes, the body is cut down alive, the heart taken out and expoſed to public view, and the entrails burnt; the head is then cut off, and the body quartered; after which the head is uſually fixed on ſome conſpicuous place. All the criminal's lands and goods are forfeited, his wife loſes her dowry, and his children both their eſtates and nobility.

But though coining of money is adjudged high treaſon, the criminal is only drawn upon a ſledge to the place of execution, and there hanged.

Though the ſentence paſſed upon all traitors is the ſame, yet, with reſpect to perſons of quality, the puniſhment is generally altered to beheading: a ſcaffold is erected for that purpoſe, on which the criminal placing his head upon a block, it is ſtruck off with an axe *.

The puniſhment for miſpriſion of high treaſon, that is, for neglecting or concealing it, is impriſonment for life, the forfeiture of all the offender's goods, and the profits ariſing from his lands.

Petty treaſon is when a child kills his father, a wife her huſband, a clergyman his biſhop, or a ſervant his maſter or miſtreſs. This crime is puniſhed by the offender's being drawn on a ſledge to the place of execution, and there hanged upon a gallows till dead. Women guilty both of this crime and of high treaſon, are ſentenced to be burnt alive; but inſtead of ſuf-

* This is not to be conſidered as a different puniſhment, but as a remiſſion of all the parts of the ſentence mentioned before, excepting the article of beheading.

fering

fering the full rigour of the law, they are ſtrangled at the ſtake before the fire takes hold of them.

Felony includes murders, robberies, forging notes, bonds, deeds, &c. Theſe are all puniſhed by hanging, only * murderers are to be executed ſoon after ſentence is paſſed, and then delivered to the ſurgeons in order to be publicly diſſected. Perſons guilty of robbery, when there were ſome alleviating circumſtances, uſed ſometimes to be tranſported for a term of years to his majeſty's plantations; but ſince the American war, they are now generally condemned to hard labour in works of public utility, upon the river, &c. for a certain number of years; and lately ſome have been ſent to Africa, Nova Scotia, and Botany Bay.

Other crimes puniſhed by the laws are,

Manſlaughter, which is the unlawful killing of a perſon without premeditated malice, but with a preſent intent to kill; as when two who formerly meant no harm to each other, quarrel, and the one kills the other: in this caſe, the criminal is allowed the benefit of his clergy for the firſt time, and only burnt in the hand.

Chance-medley is the accidental killing of a man without an evil intent; for which the offender is alſo to be burnt in the hand, unleſs the offender was doing an unlawful act; which laſt circumſtance makes the puniſhment death.

Shop-lifting, and receiving goods knowing them to be ſtolen, are puniſhed with hard labour for a number of years, or burning in the hand.

Perjury, or keeping diſorderly houſes, are puniſhed with the pillory and impriſonment.

Petty-larceny, or ſmall theft, under the value of twelve-pence, is puniſhed by whipping.

Libelling, uſing falſe weights and meaſures, and foreſtalling the market, are commonly puniſhed with ſtanding on the pillory.

For ſtriking, ſo as to draw blood, in a king's court, the criminal is puniſhed with loſing his right hand.

For ſtriking in Weſtminſter-hall while the courts of juſtice are ſitting, the puniſhment is impriſonment for life, and forfeiture of all the offender's eſtate.

Drunkards, vagabonds, and looſe, idle, diſorderly perſons, are puniſhed by being ſet in the ſtocks, or by paying a fine.

OF HUSBAND AND WIFE.] The firſt private relation of perſons is that of marriage, which includes the reciprocal rights and duties of huſband and wife; or, as moſt of our elder law books call them, *baron* and *feme*. The holineſs of the matrimonial ſtate is left entirely to the eccleſiaſtical law; the puniſhment, therefore, or annulling of inceſtuous, or other unſcriptural marriages, is the province of ſpiritual courts.

There are two kinds of divorce; the one total, the other partial. The total divorce muſt be for ſome of the canonical cauſes of impediment, and thoſe exiſting before the marriage: as conſanguinity, affinity, or corporeal imbecillity. The iſſue of ſuch marriage, as it is thus entirely diſſolved, are baſtards.

The other kind of divorce is, when the marriage is juſt and lawful, and therefore the law is tender of diſſolving it; but, for ſome ſupervenient cauſe, it becomes improper, or impoſſible, for the parties to live together; as in the caſe of intolerable ill temper, or adultery, in either of the

* By a late act, murderers are to be executed within twenty-four hours after ſentence is pronounced; but as Sunday is not reckoned a day, they are generally tried on a Saturday, ſo that they obtain a reſpite till Monday.

parties. In this caſe the law allows alimony to the wife (except when, for adultery, the parliament grants a total divorce, as has happened frequently of late years), which is that allowance which is made to a woman for her ſupport out of the huſband's eſtate, being ſettled at the diſcretion of the eccleſiaſtical judge, on the conſideration of all the circumſtances of the caſe, and the rank and quality of the parties.

In the civil law, the huſband and the wife are conſidered as two diſtinct perſons; and may have ſeparate eſtates, contracts, debts, and injuries; and therefore in our eccleſiaſtical courts a woman may ſue, and be ſued, without her huſband.

But though our law in general conſider man and wife as one perſon, yet there are ſome inſtances in which ſhe is ſeparately conſidered, as inferior to him, and acting by his compulſion. And therefore all deeds executed, and acts done, by her, during her coverture, are void; except it be a fine, or the like matter of record, in which caſe ſhe muſt be ſolely and ſecretly examined, to learn if her act be voluntary. She cannot by will deviſe land to her huſband, unleſs under ſpecial circumſtances; for at the time of making it, ſhe is ſuppoſed to be under his coercion. And in ſome felonies, and other inferior crimes committed by her through conſtraint of her huſband, the law excuſes her; but this extends not to treaſon or murder.

The huſband alſo (by the old, and likewiſe by the civil law) might give his wife moderate correction. For, as he is to anſwer for her miſbehaviour, the law thought it reaſonable to intruſt him with this power of reſtraining her by domeſtic chaſtiſement, in the ſame moderation that a man is allowed to correct his ſervants or children; for whom the maſter or parents is alſo liable in ſome caſes to anſwer. But in the politer reign of Charles II. this power of correction began to be doubted; and a wife may now have ſecurity of the peace againſt her huſband; or in return, a huſband againſt his wife: yet the lower ranks of people, who were always fond of the old common law, ſtill claim and exert their ancient privilege: and the courts of law will ſtill permit a huſband to reſtrain a wife of her liberty, in caſe of any groſs miſbehaviour.

Theſe are the chief legal effects of marriage during the coverture; upon which we may obſerve, that even the diſabilities which the wife lies under, are for the moſt part intended for her protection and benefit. So great a favourite is the female ſex with the laws of England.

REVENUES OF THE BRITISH GOVERNMENT. The king's eccleſiaſtical revenues conſiſt in, 1. The cuſtody of the temporalities of vacant biſhoprics; from which he receives little or no advantage. 2. Corodies and penſions, formerly ariſing from allowances of meat, drink, and clothing due to the king from an abbey or monaſtery, and which he generally beſtowed upon favourite ſervants; and his ſending one of his chaplains to be maintained by the biſhop, or to have a penſion beſtowed upon him till the biſhop promoted him to a benefice. Theſe corodies are due of common right, but now, I believe, diſuſed. 3. Extra-parochial tithes. 4. The firſt-fruits and tenths of benefices. At preſent, ſuch has been the bounty of the crown to the church, that theſe four branches afford little or no revenue.

The king's ordinary temporal revenue conſiſts in, 1. The demeſne lands of the crown, which at preſent are contracted within a narrow compaſs. 2. The hereditary exciſe; being part of the conſideration for the purchaſe of his feodal profits, and the prerogatives of purveyance and pre-emption. 3. An annual ſum iſſuing from the duty on wine licences; being the reſidue of the ſame conſideration. 4. His foreſts. 5. His courts of juſtice, &c.

The extraordinary grants are uſually called by the ſynonymous names of aids,

aids, ſubſidies, and ſupplies, and are granted, as has been before hinted, by the commons of Great Britain in parliament aſſembled; who, when they have voted a ſupply to his majeſty, and ſettled the *quantum* of that ſupply, uſually reſolve themſelves into what is called a committee of ways and means, to conſider of the ways and means of raiſing the ſupply ſo voted. And in this committee, every member (though it is looked upon as the peculiar province of the chancellor of the exchequer) may propoſe ſuch ſcheme of taxation as he thinks will be leaſt detrimental to the public. The reſolutions of this committee (when approved by a vote of the houſe) are in general eſteemed to be (as it were) final and concluſive. For, though the ſupply cannot be actually raiſed upon the ſubject till directed by an act of the whole parliament, yet no monied man will ſcruple to advance to the government any quantity of ready caſh, if the propoſed terms be advantageous, on the credit of the bare vote of the houſe of commons, though no law be yet paſſed to eſtabliſh it.

The annual taxes are, 1. The land-tax, or the ancient ſubſidy raiſed upon a new aſſeſſment. 2. The malt-tax, being an annual exciſe on malt, mum, cyder, and perry.

The perpetual taxes are, 1. The cuſtoms, or tonnage and poundage of all merchandiſe exported or imported. 2. The exciſe duty, or inland impoſition, on a great variety of commodities. 3. The ſalt duty. 4. The poſt-office *, or duty for the carriage of letters. 5. The ſtamp duty on paper, parchment, &c. 6. The duty on houſes and windows. 7. The duty on licences for hackney coaches and chairs. 8. The duty on offices and penſions; with a variety of new taxes in the ſeſſions of 1784.

The clear net produce of theſe ſeveral branches of the revenue, old and new taxes, after all charges of collecting and management paid, is eſtimated to amount annually to about eleven millions ſterling; with two millions and a quarter raiſed at an average, by the land and malt-tax. How theſe immenſe ſums are appropriated, is next to be conſidered. And this is, firſt and principally, to the payment of the *intereſt* of the national debt.

In order to take a clear and comprehenſive view of the nature of this NATIONAL DEBT, it muſt firſt be premiſed, that after the Revolution, when our new connections with Europe introduced a new ſyſtem of foreign politics, the expenſes of the nation, not only in ſettling the new eſtabliſhment, but in maintaining long wars, as principals on the continent, for the ſecurity of the Dutch barrier, reducing the French monarchy, ſettling the Spaniſh ſucceſſion, ſupporting the houſe of Auſtria, maintaining the liberties of the Germanic body, and other purpoſes, increaſed to an unuſual degree; inſomuch that it was not thought adviſable to raiſe all the expenſes of any one year by taxes to be levied within that year, leſt the unaccuſtomed weight of them ſhould create murmurs among the people. It was therefore the bad policy of the times, to anticipate the revenues of their poſterity, by borrowing immenſe ſums for the current ſervice of the ſtate, and to lay no more taxes upon the ſubject than would ſuffice to pay the annual intereſt of the ſums ſo borrowed: by this means converting the principal debt into a new ſpecies of property, transferable

* From the year 1644 to 1744, the annual amount of this revenue gradually increaſed from 5000l. to 198,226l. but it ſhould be obſerved, that the groſs amount of both inland and foreign offices was that year 235,492l. In 1764, the groſs amount of the revenue of the poſt-office for that year was 432,048l. which, by the act paſſed in the ſeſſions of 1784, increaſing the duty according to the diſtance, and abridging the franking, muſt be conſiderably augmented.

from one man to another, at any time and in any quantity: a ſyſtem which ſeems to have had its original in the ſtate of Florence, A. D. 1344; which government then owed about 60,000l. ſterling; and being unable to pay it, formed the principal into an aggregate ſum, called, metaphorically, a mount or bank; the ſhares whereof were transferable like our ſtocks. This laid the foundation of what is called the NATIONAL DEBT: for a few long annuities, created in the reign of Charles II. will hardly deſerve that name. And the example then ſet has been ſo cloſely followed during the long wars in the reign of queen Anne, and ſince, that the capital of the funded debt, at Midſummer 1775, was 129,860,018l. and the annual charge of it amounted to 4,219,254l. 7s. The ruinous American war, commencing at this time, and the execrable policy continuing of alienating the ſinking fund, with the extravagancies in every department of government, and the manner of borrowing the money for ſupplies, have conſiderably increaſed it *.

The following was the ſtate of the national debt in the year 1783, extracted from the eleventh report of the commiſſioners of the public accounts:

£.	s.	d.		£.	s.	d.
211,363,254	15	4¾	Funded debt			
			Intereſt thereon - - - - -	7,951,390	1	0
18,856,541	11	4½	Unfunded, 1ſt of October, 1783.			
			Fifteen millions of this bear intereſt now.			
			Intereſt thereon - - - - - -	612,742	0	0
230,219,706	6	9¼				
			Charges at the Bank for managing the buſineſs - - - - -	34,291	13	1
			Fees at the auditor's office of impreſt - - - - - - - - -	19,874	2	8
			Some other fees of office - - -	696	12	4
				8,719,534	9	1
			Since this report, the funded debt hath increaſed to	232,280,349	0	0
			The unfunded debt, meaning all expenſes, deficiencies, arrears, and outſtanding debts, for paying the principal or intereſt of which no proviſion was made by parliament, may be moderately reckoned	38,000,000	0	0
			The amount of exchequer bills - - - - - -	9,418,564	0	0
				279,698,913	0	0
			Thus the whole annual charge brought upon the nation by its debts, funded and unfunded, appears to be about - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -	9,500,000	0	0
			Peace eſtabliſhment reckoned at the average annual expenſe for eleven years preceding the war - -	3,950,000	0	0
			Income of the civil liſt - - - - - - - - - - -	900,000	0	0
			Whole expenditure - - - - - - - - - - -	14,350,000	0	0

The ſupplies demanded for the year 1784 amounted to 14,181,240l.

* In the courſe of the late war, from 1776 to 1782, 46,550,000l. was added to the 3 per cents. and 29,750,000l. to the 4 per cents. making together a capital of 73,540,000l. for which the money advanced was only 48 millions.

but

but an eminent political writer, lord Stair, reckons the future annual peace expenditure at ſixteen millions and a half, including half a million for a ſurplus to anſwer emergencies. Another reſpectable writer on the ſubject eſtimates it at 13,615,609l. including 954,000l *per annum* for the intereſt and charge of what remained of the unfunded debt after the laſt loan, and he eſtimates the peace revenue at near ſixteen millions. Time will unfold the future progreſs of our national debt, and the calamities towards which it is carrying us, if the moſt effectual meaſures are not adopted and zealouſly purſued for a thorough reformation.

It is indiſputably certain, that the preſent magnitude of our national incumbrances very far exceed all calculations of commercial benefit, and is productive of the greateſt inconveniences. For, firſt, the enormous taxes that are raiſed upon the neceſſaries of life, for the payment of the intereſt of this debt, are a hurt both to trade and manufactures; by raiſing the price as well of the artificer's ſubſiſtence, as of the raw material; and of courſe, in a much greater proportion, the price of the commodity itſelf. Secondly, if part of this debt be owing to foreigners, either they draw out of the kingdom annually a conſiderable quantity of ſpecie for the intereſt; or elſe it is made an argument to grant them unreaſonable privileges, in order to induce them to reſide here. Thirdly, if the whole be owing to ſubjects only, it is then charging the active and induſtrious ſubject, who pays his ſhare of the taxes, to maintain the indolent and idle creditor who receives them. Laſtly, and principally, it weakens the internal ſtrength of a ſtate, by anticipating thoſe reſources which ſhould be reſerved to defend it in caſe of neceſſity. The intereſt we now pay for our debts would be nearly ſufficient to maintain any war, that any national motives could require. And if our anceſtors in king William's time had annually paid, ſo long as their exigencies laſted, even a leſs ſum than we now annually raiſe upon their account, they would, in time of war, have borne no greater burdens than they have bequeathed to and ſettled upon their poſterity in the time of peace, and might have been eaſed the inſtant the exigence was over.

The produce of the ſeveral taxes before mentioned were originally ſeparate and diſtinct funds; being ſecurities for the ſums advanced on each ſeveral tax, and for them only. But at laſt it became neceſſary, in order to avoid confuſion, as they multiplied yearly, to reduce the number of theſe ſeparate funds, by uniting and blending them together, ſuperadding the faith of parliament for the general ſecurity of the whole. So that there are now only three capital funds of any account: the *aggregate fund*, the whole produce of which hath been for ſome years about 2,600,000l. *per annum*; the *general fund*, ſo called from ſuch union and addition, which for ſome years have amounted to rather more than a million *per annum*: and the *South Sea fund*, being the produce of the taxes appropriated to pay the intereſt of ſuch part of the national debt as was advanced by that company and its annuitants, the produce of which lately hath been about half a million *per annum*. Whereby the ſeparate funds, which were thus united, are become mutual ſecurities for each other; and the whole produce of them, thus aggregated, liable to pay ſuch intereſt or annuities as were formerly charged upon each diſtinct fund; the faith of the legiſlature being moreover engaged to ſupply any caſual deficiencies.

The cuſtoms, exciſes, and other taxes, which are to ſupport theſe funds, depending on contingencies, upon exports, imports, and conſumptions, muſt neceſſarily be of a very uncertain amount: but they have always been conſiderably more than ſufficient to anſwer the charge upon them.

The ſurpluſſes therefore of the three great national funds, the aggregate, general, and South-Sea funds, over and above the intereſt and annuities charged upon them, are directed by ſtatute 3 Geo. I. c. 7. to be carried together, and to attend the diſpoſition of parliament; and are uſually denominated the *ſinking fund*, becauſe originally deſtined to be held ſacred, and to be applied inviolably to the redemption of the national debt. To this have been ſince added many other entire duties, granted in ſubſequent years; and the annual intereſt of the ſums borrowed on their reſpective credits, is charged on, and payable out of the produce of the ſinking fund. However, the net ſurpluſſes and ſavings, after all deductions paid, amount annually to a very conſiderable ſum. For, as the intereſt on the national debt has been at ſeveral times reduced (by the conſent of the proprietors, who had their option either to lower their intereſt, or be paid their principal), the ſavings from the appropriated revenues muſt needs be extremely large. This ſinking fund is the laſt reſort of the nation: its only domeſtic reſource, on which muſt chiefly depend all the hopes we can entertain of ever diſcharging or moderating our incumbrances. And therefore the prudent appli. ation of the large ſums, now ariſing from this fund, is a point of the utmoſt importance, and well worthy the ſerious attention of parliament.

Between the years 1727 and 1732, ſeveral encroachments were made upon the ſinking fund; and in the year 1733, half a million was taken from it by ſir Robert Walpole, under pretence of eaſing the landed intereſt. The practice of alienating the ſinking fund being thus begun, hath continued of courſe; and in 1736, it was anticipated and mortgaged; and every ſubſequent adminiſtration hath broken in upon it, thus converting this excellent expedient for ſaving the kingdom, into a ſupply for extravagance, and a ſupport of corruption and deſpotiſm.

In ſome years, the ſinking fund hath produced from two to three millions *per annum*, and if only 1,212,000l. of it had been inviolably applied to the redemption of the public debts, from the year 1733, inſtead of only eight millions and a half paid off by it, as is the caſe at preſent, one hundred and ſixty millions would have been paid, and the nation have been extricated and ſaved. Different ſchemes have been formed for paying the public debts: but no method can be ſo expeditious and effectual as an unalienable ſinking fund, as this money is improved at *compound intereſt*, and therefore in the moſt perfect manner; but money procured by a loan, bears only ſimple intereſt. "A nation therefore, whenever it applies the income of ſuch a fund to current expenſes rather than the redemption of its debts, chooſes to loſe the benefit of compound intereſt in order to avoid paying ſimple intereſt, and the loſs in this caſe is equal to the difference between the increaſe of money at compound and ſimple intereſt *."

Before

* Dr. Price's calculation plainly ſhows what this difference is: "One penny put out at our Saviour's birth at 5 per cent. compound intereſt, would, in the year 1781, have increaſed to a greater ſum than would be contained in 200,000,000 of earths, all ſolid gold; but if put out to ſimple intereſt, it at the ſame time would have amounted to no more than ſeven ſhillings and ſix-pence. All governments that alienate funds deſtined for reimburſements, chooſe to improve money in the *laſt* rather than the *firſt* of theſe ways." He adds, "A million borrowed annually for twenty years, will pay off in this time, 55 millions 3 per cent ſtock, if diſcharged at 60l. in money for every 100l. ſtock; and in 40 years more, without any farther aid from loans, 333 millions (that is, 388 millions in all) would be paid off.

"The addition of nineteen years to this period would pay off 1000 millions.

"A ſurplus of half a million per annum, made up to a million by borrowing half a million

Before any part of the *aggregate fund* (the ſurpluſſes whereof are one of the chief ingredients that form the ſinking fund) can be applied to diminiſh the principal of the public debt, it ſtands mortgaged by parliament to raiſe an annual ſum for the maintenance of the king's houſehold and the civil liſt. For this purpoſe, in the late reigns, the produce of certain branches of the exciſe and cuſtoms, the poſt-office, the duty on wine-licences, the revenues of the remaining crown-lands, the profit ariſing from courts of juſtice (which articles include all the hereditary revenue of the crown), and alſo a clear annuity of 120,000l. in money, were ſettled on the king for life, for the ſupport of his majeſty's houſehold, and the honour and dignity of the crown. And as the amount of theſe ſeveral branches were uncertain (though in the laſt reign they were computed to have ſometimes raiſed almoſt a million), if they did not riſe annually to 800,000l. the parliament engaged to make up the deficiency. But his preſent majeſty having, ſoon after his acceſſion, ſpontaneouſly ſignified his conſent, that his own hereditary revenues might be ſo diſpoſed of, as might beſt conduce to the utility and ſatisfaction of the public; and having accepted the limited ſum of 800,000l. per annum, for the ſupport of his civil liſt (and that alſo charged with three life annuities to the princeſs of Wales, the duke of Cumberland, and princeſs Amelia, to the amount of 77,000l.), the ſaid hereditary, and other revenues, are now carried into, and made part of the aggregate fund; and the aggregate fund is charged with the payment of the whole annuity to the crown, beſides annual payments to the dukes of Glouceſter and Cumberland, and the repreſentatives of Arthur Onſlow, eſq. and the earl of Chatham. Hereby the revenues themſelves, being put under the ſame care and management as the other branches of the public patrimony, will produce more, and be better collected, than heretofore. The civil liſt, thus liquidated, together with the millions intereſt of the national debt, and the ſums produced from the ſinking fund, beſides the uncertain ſums ariſing from the annual taxes on land and malt, and others lately impoſed, make the clear produce of the taxes, excluſive of the charges of collecting, which are raiſed yearly on the people of this country, amount to upward of fourteen millions ſterling. The amount of the capitals of the reſpective public funds may be ſeen in the following page.

a million every year for twenty years, would diſcharge the ſame ſums in the ſame periods.

"In ſhort, ſo neceſſary is it at preſent to expedite, by every poſſible means, the redemption of our debts, that, let the ſurplus which can be obtained for a ſinking fund be what it will, an addition to it by annual loans, will be proper, in order to give it greater efficiency and a better chance for ſaving the kingdom.——The increaſe of taxes which ſuch a meaſure muſt occaſion, would be ſo inconſiderable and ſo gradual, as to be ſcarcely perceptible; and, at the ſame time, it would manifeſt ſuch a determined reſolution in our rulers to reduce our debts, as might have the happieſt influence on public credit."

FUNDS.	Capital of each ſtock.	Annual Intereſt.	Funds purchaſed by the commiſſioners, from Auguſt 1786, to January 1794. Principal.	Intereſt.	Transfer days at the Bank, &c.	Divid. on each fund when due.	Holidays.	Unfunded debt to January 1794.
	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£.	£. s.				£. s. d.
5 per cent. navy annuities *	19,819,323 14 5	990,996 3 8	- -	- -	Mon. Wed. & Frid.	Jan. 5.	Jan. 1, 6, 13, 25, 30. Feb. 2, 24. March 25. April 23, 25.	Exchequer Bills 3,500,000 0 0
3 per cent. conſol	124,649,696 5 17½	3,739,490 17 9	5,378,055	161,341 13	Tu. Wed. Th. & Fr.			
3 per cent. 1726	1,000,000 0 0	30,000 0 0	- -	- -	Tueſ. & Thurſ.			
South Sea Stock	3,662,754 8 6	128,197 9 1	- -	- -	Mon. Wed. & Fri.	and		Navy and victualling Bills 3,600,000 0 0
3 per cent. new S. Sea annuities	8,494,830 2 10	254,844 18 1	1,516,000	45,480 0	Tueſ. Thurſ. & Sat.	July 5.	May 1, 29. June 4, 11, 24, 29. July 25. Aug. 1, 12, 24. Sept 2, 21, 22, 29. Oct. 18, 25, 26, 28. Nov. 1, 4, 5, 9, 30. Dec. 21, 25, 26, 27, 28. Moveable. Shrove Tu. Aſh W. Good Friday. Eaſt. M. T. W. Ho. T. Whit. M. Tu. & W.	Ordnance ditto. 95,000 0 0
3 per cent 1751	1,919,600 0 0	57,588 0 0	459,300	13,779 0	Tueſ. & Thurſ.			
India Stock †	6,000,000 0 0	630,000 0 0	- -	- -	Tueſ. Thurſ & Sat.			
Exchequer annu.	- - -	80,222 18 0						
Life & Ton. ditto	- - -	110,158 12 7						
Bank Stock	11,686,800 0 0	818,076 0 0	- -	- -	Tueſ. Thurſ. & Fri.	Apr. 5.		
4 per cent. conſol.	35,500,000 0 0	1,420,000 0 0	- -	- -	Tueſ. Thurſ. & Sat.			
3 per cent redu	41,540,073 16 4	1,246,202 4 3	3,575,100	107,253 0	Tu. Wed. Thu. & Fri.	and		
3 per cent. old S. Sea annuities	11,907,470 2 7	357,224 2 0	1,946,150	58,384 0	Mon. Wed. & Fri.			
Long annuities ‡	- - -	767,518 11 8	- -	- -	Tueſ. Wed. & Sat.			
Annuities 1778 and 1779 ‖	- - -	418,333 0 11	- -	- -	Mon. Wed. & Fri.	Oct. 5.		
	266,180,548 9 9½	11,983,549 16 5	12,874,605	586,238 3				7,695,000 00

N. B. Dividends paid at the Bank from 9 to 11, and 1 to 3.—Transfers 11 to 1.—Dividends at the S. S. and India Houſe, from 9 to 12.—Transfers from 12 to 1.

* This ſtock compriſed the whole of the unfunded debt in 1784, which conſiſted of certain navy, victualling, and tranſport bills, bearing intereſt at 4 per cent. as well as ordnance and other bills at non-intereſt. No part of this Stock can be redeemed till 25 millions of the 3 or 4 per cents are paid off.

† Laſt year the India Company added one million to their capital, by a ſubſcription of the Stockholders at 200l. per cent. and this year (1794) 2 millions by bonds.

‡ Fall in January 1860. The original annuity was for 99 years.

‖ Theſe fall in 1808.

The expenſes defrayed by the civil liſt, are thoſe that in any ſhape relate to civil government; as the expenſes of the houſehold, all ſalaries to officers of ſtate, to the judges, and every one of the king's ſervants; the appointments to foreign ambaſſadors, the maintenance of the queen and royal family, the king's private expenſes, or privy purſe, and other very numerous outgoings; as ſecret ſervice money, penſions, and other bounties. Theſe ſometimes have ſo far exceeded the revenues appointed for that purpoſe, that application has been made to parliament to diſcharge the debts contracted on the civil liſt; as particularly in 1724, when one million was granted for that purpoſe by the ſtatute 11 Geo. I. c. 17. Large ſums have alſo been repeatedly granted for the payment of the king's debts in the preſent reign; and the conſiderable augmentation of 100,000l. has likewiſe been made to his annual income. When the bill for ſuppreſſing certain offices, as the board of trade, &c. was debated, by which ſavings were to be made to the amount of 72,308l. per annum, it appeared that the arrears then due on the civil liſt at that time, June 1782, amounted to 95,877l. 18s. 4d. notwithſtanding ſo liberal an allowance had been recently made, and the king's debts had been repeatedly liquidated by parliamentary grants; and for the payment of this other debt, proviſion was made by the bill.

The civil liſt is indeed properly the whole of the king's revenue in his own diſtinct capacity; the reſt being rather the revenue of the public, or its creditors, though collected and diſtributed again in the name, and by the officers of the crown; it is now ſtanding in the ſame place as the hereditary income did formerly; and as that has gradually diminiſhed, the parliamentary appointments have increaſed.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH OF GREAT BRITAIN. } The *military ſtate* includes the whole of the ſoldiery, or ſuch perſons as are peculiarly appointed among the reſt of the people, for the ſafeguard and defence of the realm.

In a land of liberty it is extremely dangerous to make a diſtinct order of the profeſſion of arms. In ſuch, no man ſhould take up arms, but with a view to defend his country and its laws: he puts not off the citizen when he enters the camp; but it is becauſe he is a citizen and would wiſh to continue ſo, that he makes himſelf for a while a ſoldier. The laws and conſtitution of theſe kingdoms know no ſuch ſtate as that of a perpetual ſtanding ſoldier, bred up to no other profeſſion than that of war; and it was not till the reign of Henry VII. that the kings of England had ſo much as a guard about their perſons.

It ſeems univerſally agreed by all hiſtorians, that king Alfred firſt ſettled a national militia in this kingdom, and by his prudent diſcipline made all the ſubjects of his dominions ſoldiers.

In the mean time we are not to imagine that the kingdom was left wholly without defence, in caſe of domeſtic inſurrections, or the proſpect of foreign invaſions. Beſides thoſe who, by their military tenures, were bound to perform forty days' ſervice in the field, the ſtatute of Winchester obliged every man, according to his eſtate and degree, to provide a determinate quantity of ſuch arms as were then in uſe, in order to keep the peace; and conſtables were appointed in all hundreds, to ſee that ſuch arms were provided. Theſe weapons were changed by the ſtatute 4 and 5 Ph. and M. c. 2. into others of more modern ſervice: but both this and the former proviſions were repealed in the reign of James I. While theſe continued in force, it was uſual, from time to time, for our princes to iſſue commiſſions of array, and ſend into every county officers in whom they could confide, to muſter and array (or ſet in military order) the inhabitants of every diſtrict; and the form of the commiſſion of array was

ſettled

ſettled in parliament in the 5 Henry IV. But at the ſame time it was provided, that no man ſhould be compelled to go out of the kingdom at any rate; nor out of his ſhire, but in caſes of urgent neceſſity; nor ſhould provide ſoldiers unleſs by conſent of parliament. About the reign of king Henry VIII. lord-lieutenants began to be introduced, as ſtanding repreſentatives of the crown, to keep the counties in military order; for we find them mentioned as known officers in the ſtatute 4 & 5 Ph. and M. c. 3. though they had not been then long in uſe; for Camden ſpeaks of them in the time of queen Elizabeth as extraordinary magiſtrates, conſtituted only in times of difficulty and danger.

Soon after the reſtoration of king Charles II. when the military tenures were aboliſhed, it was thought proper to aſcertain the power of the militia, to recogniſe the ſole right of the crown to govern and command them, and to put the whole into a more regular method of military ſubordination; and the order in which the militia now ſtands by law, is principally built upon the ſtatutes which were then enacted. It is true, the two laſt of them are apparently repealed; but many of their proviſions are re-enacted, with the addition of ſome new regulations, by the preſent militia laws; the general ſcheme of which is, to diſcipline a certain number of the inhabitants of every county, choſen by lot for three years, and officered by the lord lieutenant, the deputy lieutenants, and other principal land-holders, under a commiſſion from the crown. They are not compellable to march out of their counties, unleſs in caſe of an invaſion, or actual rebellion, nor in any caſe to be ſent out of the kingdom. They are to be exerciſed at ſtated times, and their diſcipline in general is liberal and eaſy: but when drawn out in actual ſervice, they are ſubject to the rigours of martial law, as neceſſary to keep them in order. This is the conſtitutional ſecurity which our laws have provided for the public peace, and for protecting the realm againſt foreign or domeſtic violence, and which the ſtatutes declare is eſſentially neceſſary to the ſafety and proſperity of the kingdom; the militia, however, are not called forth and embodied but by an act of the legiſlature, and at preſent are laid aſide.

But as the faſhion of keeping ſtanding armies has univerſally prevailed over all Europe of late years (though ſome of its potentates, being unable themſelves to maintain them, are obliged to have recourſe to richer powers, and receive ſubſidiary penſions for that purpoſe), it has alſo for many years paſt been annually judged neceſſary by our legiſlature, for the ſafety of the kingdom, the defence of the poſſeſſions of the crown of Great Britain, and the preſervation of the balance of power in Europe, to maintain, even in time of peace, a ſtanding body of troops, under the command of the crown; who are, however, *ipſo facto*, diſbanded at the expiration of every year, unleſs continued by parliament. The land forces of theſe kingdoms, in time of peace, amount to about 40,000 men, including troops and garriſons in Ireland, Gibraltar, the Eaſt-Indies, and America; but in time of war, there have formerly been in Britiſh pay, natives and foreigners, above 150,000; and there have been in the pay of Great Britain, ſince the commencement of the American war, 135,000 men, beſides 42,000 militia. To keep this body of troops in order, an annual act of parliament paſſes, "to puniſh mutiny and deſertion, and for the better payment of the army and their quarters." This regulates the manner in which they are to be diſperſed among the ſeveral inn-keepers and victuallers throughout the kingdom; and eſtabliſhes a law martial for their government.

The MARITIME ſtate is nearly related to the former, though much more agreeable to the principles of our free conſtitution. The royal navy of England hath ever been its greateſt defence and ornament; it is its ancient and natural ſtrength; the floating bulwark of the iſland; an army, from-

from which, however ſtrong and powerful, no danger can ever be apprehended to liberty; and accordingly it has been aſſiduouſly cultivated, even from the earlieſt ages. To ſo much perfection was our naval reputation arrived in the twelfth century, that the code of maritime laws, which are called the laws of Oleron, and are received by all nations in Europe as the ground and ſubſtruction of all their marine conſtitutions, was confeſſedly compiled by our king Richard I. at the iſle of Oleron, on the coaſt of France, then part of the poſſeſſions of the crown of England. And yet, ſo vaſtly inferior were our anceſtors in this point to the preſent age, that even in the maritime reign of queen Elizabeth, ſir Edward Coke thinks it matter of boaſt that the royal navy of England then conſiſted of 33 ſhips. The preſent condition of our marine is in a great meaſure owing to the ſalutary proviſions of the ſtatute called the navigation act; whereby the conſtant increaſe of Engliſh ſhipping and ſeamen was not only encouraged, but rendered unavoidably neceſſary. The moſt beneficial ſtatute for the trade and commerce of theſe kingdoms, is that navigation act; the rudiments of which were firſt framed in 1650, partly with a narrow view; being intended to mortify the ſugar iſlands, which were diſaffected to the parliament, and ſtill held out for Charles II. by ſtopping the gainful trade which they then carried on with the Dutch; and at the ſame time to clip the wings of thoſe our opulent and aſpiring neighbours. This prohibited all ſhips of foreign nations from trading with any Engliſh plantations without licence from the council of ſtate. In 1651, the prohibition was extended alſo to the mother country; and no goods were ſuffered to be imported into England, or any of its dependencies, in any other than Engliſh bottoms, or in the ſhips of that European nation, of which the merchandiſe imported was the genuine growth or manufacture. At the reſtoration, the former proviſions were continued by ſtatute 12 Car. II. c. 18. with this very material improvement, that the maſters and three-fourths of the mariners ſhall alſo be Engliſh ſubjects.

The complement of ſeamen, in time of peace, uſually hath amounted to 12 or 15,000. In time of war, they have fomerly amounted to no leſs than 80,000 men; and after the commencement of the American war, they amounted to above 100,000 men, including marines. The vote of parliament for the ſervice of the year 1784, is for 26,000 ſeamen, including 4495 marines.

This navy is commonly divided into three ſquadrons, namely, the red, white, and blue, which are ſo termed from the differences of their colours. Each ſquadron has its admiral: but the admiral of the red ſquadron has the principal command of the whole, and is ſtyled vice-admiral of Great Britain. Subject to each admiral is alſo a vice and rear-admiral. But the ſupreme command of our naval force is, next to the king, in the lords commiſſioners of the admiralty. Notwithſtanding our favourable ſituation for a maritime power, it was not until the vaſt armament ſent to ſubdue us by Spain, in 1588, that the nation, by a vigorous effort, became fully ſenſible of its true intereſt and natural ſtrength, which it has ſince ſo happily cultivated.

We may venture to affirm, that the Britiſh navy, during the war of 1756, was able to cope with all the other fleets of Europe. In the courſe of a few years it entirely vanquiſhed the whole naval power of France, diſabled Spain, and kept the Dutch and other powers in awe. For the protection of the Britiſh empire, and the annoyance of our enemies, it was then divided into ſeveral powerful ſquadrons, ſo judiciouſly ſtationed, as at once to appear in every quarter of the globe; and while ſome fleets were humbling the pride of Spain in Aſia and America, others were employed in fruſtrating the deſigns of France, and eſcorting home the riches of the eaſtern and weſtern worlds.

I ſhall

I ſhall cloſe this account of the military and maritime ſtrength of England, or rather of Great Britain, by obſerving, that though ſea officers and ſailors are ſubject to a perpetual act of parliament, which anſwers the annual military act that is paſſed for the government of the army, yet neither of thoſe bodies are exempted from legal juriſdiction in civil or criminal caſes, but in a few inſtances, of no great moment. The ſoldiers, particularly, may be called upon by a civil magiſtrate, to enable him to preſerve the peace againſts all attempts to break it. The military officer who commands the ſoldiers on thoſe occaſions, is to take his directions from the magiſtrate; and both he and they, if their proceedings are regular, are indemnified againſt all conſequences, be they ever ſo fatal. Thoſe civil magiſtrates, who underſtand the principles of the conſtitution, are however extremely cautious in calling for the military on theſe occaſions, or upon any commotion whatever; and, indeed, with good reaſon; for the frequent employment of the military power in a free government is exceedingly dangerous, and cannot be guarded againſt with too much caution.

COINS] In Great Britain money is computed by pounds. ſhillings, and pence; twelve pence making a ſhilling, and twenty ſhillings one pound; which pound is only an imaginary coin. The gold pieces conſiſt only of guineas, and half guineas; the ſilver, of crowns, half crowns, ſhillings, ſix-pences, groats, and even down to a ſilver penny; and the copper money only of halfpence and farthings. In a country like England, where the intrinſic value of ſilver is nearly equal, and in ſome coins, crown pieces particularly, ſuperior to the nominal, the coinage of ſilver money is a matter of great conſequence; and yet the preſent ſtate of the national currency ſeems to demand a new coinage of ſhillings and ſix-pences; the intrinſic value of the latter being in many of them worn down to half their nominal value. This can only be done by an act of parliament, and by the public loſing the difference between the bullion of the new and the old money. Beſides the coins already mentioned, five and two guinea pieces are coined at the tower of London, but theſe are not generally current; nor is any ſilver coin that is lower than ſix pence. The coins of the famous Simon, in the time of Cromwell, and in the beginning of Charles II.'s reign, are remarkable for their beauty.

ROYAL TITLES, ARMS, AND ORDERS. The title of the king of England is, By the Grace of God, of Great Britain, France, and Ireland, King, Defender of the Faith. The deſignation of the kings of England was formerly his or her Grace, or Highneſs, till Henry VIII. to put himſelf on a footing with the emperor Charles V. aſſumed that of majeſty; but the old deſignation was not aboliſhed till towards the end of queen Elizabeth's reign.

Since the acceſſion of the preſent royal family of Great Britain, anno 1714, the royal achievement is marſhalled as follows: quarterly, in the firſt grand quarter, *Mars, three lions, paſſant guardant, in pale Sol*, the imperial enſigns of England, impaled with the royal arms of Scotland, which are, *Sol, a lion rampant within a double treſſure flowered, and counter-flowered with fleurs-de-lis, Mars*. The ſecond quarter in the royal arms of France, viz. *Jupiter, three fleurs-de-lis, Sol*. The third, the enſigns of Ireland, which is, *Jupiter, an harp, Sol, ſtringed Luna*. And the fourth grand quarter is his preſent majeſty's own coat, viz. *Mars, two lions paſſant guardant, Sol*, for Brunſwick, impaled with Lunenburg, which is, *Sol, ſemee of hearts, proper, a lion rampant, Jupiter*; having ancient Saxony, viz. *Mars, an horſe currant, Luna, one* (or grafted) *in baſe*: *and in a ſhield ſur tout, Mars, the diadem, or crown of Charlemagne*; the whole, within a garter, as ſovereign of that moſt noble order of knighthood.

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The motto of *Dieu et mon Droit*, that is, *God and my Right*, is as old as the reign of Richard I. who aſſumed it to ſhow his independency upon all earthly powers. It was afterwards revived by Edward III. when he laid claim to the crown of France. Almoſt every king of England had a particular bridge or cogniſance: ſometimes a white hart, ſometimes a fetlock with a falcon, by which it is ſaid Edward IV. alluded to the infidelity of one of his miſtreſſes; and ſometimes a portcullis, which was that of the houſe of Lancaſter, many of the princes of which were born in the caſtle of Beaufort. The white roſe was the bearing of the houſe of York; and that of Lancaſter, by way of contradiſtinction, adopted the red. The thiſtle, which is now part of the royal armorial bearings, belonged to Scotland, and was very ſignificant when joined to its motto, *Nemo me impune lacſſet*, "None ſhall ſafely provoke me."

The titles of the king's eldeſt ſon are, prince of Wales, duke of Cornwall and Rothſay, earl of Cheſter, electoral prince of Brunſwick and Lunenburg, earl of Carrick, baron of Renfrew, lord of the Iſles, great ſteward of Scotland, and captain-general of the artillery company.

The order of the GARTER, the moſt honourable of any in the world, was inſtituted by Edward III. January 19, 1344. It conſiſts of the ſovereign, who is always king or queen of England, of 25 companions called Knights of the Garter, who wear a medal of St. George killing the dragon, ſuppoſed to be the tutelar ſaint of England, commonly enamelled on gold, ſuſpended from a blue ribband, which was formerly worn about their necks, but ſince the latter end of James I. now croſſes their bodies from their ſhoulder. The garter, which is of blue velvet, bordered with gold, buckled under the left knee, and gives the name to the order, was deſigned as an enſign of unity and combination; on it are embroidered the words, *Honi ſoit qui mal y penſe*, "Evil to him who evil thinks."

Knights of the BATH, ſo called from their bathing at the time of their creation, are ſuppoſed to be inſtituted by Henry IV. about the year 1399: but the order ſeems to be more ancient. For many reigns they were created at the coronation of a king or queen, or other ſolemn occaſions, and they wear a ſcarlet ribband hanging from the left ſhoulder, with an enamelled medal, the bridge of the order, a roſe iſſuing from the dexter ſide of a ſceptre, and a thiſtle from the ſiniſter, between three imperial crowns placed within the motto, *Tria juncta in unum*, "Three joined in one." This order being diſcontinued, was revived by king George I. on the 18th of May, 1725; and the month following, eighteen noblemen, and as many commoners of the firſt rank, were inſtalled knights of the order with great ceremony, at Weſtminſter, where the place of inſtalment is Henry VII.'s chapel. Their robes are ſplendid and ſhowy, and the number of knights is undetermined. The biſhop of Rocheſter is perpetual dean of the order, which has likewiſe a regiſter and other offices.

The order of the THISTLE, as belonging to Scotland, is mentioned in the account of that kingdom; as is alſo the order of St. Patrick, newly inſtituted for Ireland, in our account of that kingdom.

The origin of the Engliſh peerage, or nobility, has been already mentioned. Their titles, and order of dignity, are dukes, marquiſſes, earls, viſcounts, and lords or barons.

Baronets can ſcarcely be ſaid to belong to an order, having no other badge than a bloody hand in a field, argent, in their arms. They are the only hereditary honour under the peerage, and would take place even of the knights of the garter, were it not that the latter are always privy councellors; there being no intermediate honour between them and the parliamentary

mentary barons of England. They were inſtituted by James I. about the year 1615. Their number was then two hundred, and each paid about 1000l. on pretence of reducing and planting the province of Ulſter in Ireland: but at preſent their number amounts to 700.

A knight is a term uſed almoſt in every nation in Europe, and in general ſignifies a ſoldier ſerving on horſeback; a rank of no mean eſtimation in ancient armies, and entitling the parties themſelves to the appellation of *Sir*. Other knighthoods formerly took place in England; ſuch as thoſe of *bannerets*, bachelors, knights of the carpet, and the like; but they are now diſuſed. Indeed in the year 1773, at a review of the royal navy at Portſmouth, the king conferred the honour of Knights Bannerets on two admirals and three captains. They have no particular badge on their garments, but their arms are painted on a banner placed in the frames of the ſupporters.

It is ſomewhat difficult to account for the origin of the word *eſquire*, which formerly ſignified a perſon bearing the arms of a nobleman or knight, and they were therefore called armigeri. This title denoted any perſon, who, by his birth or property, was entitled to bear arms; but it is at preſent applied promiſcuouſly to any man who can afford to live in the character of a gentleman without trade; and even a tradeſman, if he is a juſtice of peace, demands the appellation. This degree, ſo late as in the reign of Henry IV. was an order, and conferred by the king, by putting about the party's neck a collar of SS. and giving him a pair of ſilver ſpurs. Gower the poet appears, from his effigies on his tomb in Southwark, to have been an eſquire by creation. Serjeants at-law, and other ſerjeants belonging to the king's houſehold, juſtices of the peace, doctors in divinity, law, and phyſic, take place of other eſquires; and it is remarkable, that all the ſons of dukes, marquiſſes, earls, viſcounts, and barons, are in the eye of the law no more than eſquires, though commonly deſignated by noble titles. The appellation of gentleman, though now confounded with the mean ranks of people, is the root of all Engliſh honour; for every nobleman is preſumed to be a gentleman, though every gentleman is not a nobleman.

HISTORY.] It is generally agreed that the firſt inhabitants of Britain were a tribe of the Gauls, or Celtæ, that ſettled on the oppoſite ſhore; a ſuppoſition founded upon the evident conformity in their language, manners, government, religion, and complexion.

When Julius Cæſar, about fifty-two years before the birth of Chriſt, meditated a conqueſt of Britain, the natives, undoubtedly, had great connections with the Gauls, and other people of the continent, in government, religion, and commerce, rude as the latter was. Cæſar wrote the hiſtory of his two expeditions, which he pretended were accompanied with vaſt difficulties, and attended by ſuch advantages over the iſlanders, that they agreed to pay tribute. It plainly appears, however, from contemporary and other authors, as well as Cæſar's own narrative, that his victories were incomplete and indeciſive; nor did the Romans receive the leaſt advantage from his expedition, but a better knowledge of the iſland than they had before. The Britons, at the time of Cæſar's deſcent, were governed in the time of war by a political confederacy, of which Caſſibelan, whoſe territories lay in Hertfordſhire, and ſome of the adjacent counties, was the head; and this form of government continued among them for ſome time.

In their manner of life, as deſcribed by Cæſar, and the beſt authors, they differed little from the rude inhabitants of the northern climates that have been already mentioned; but they certainly ſowed corn, though perhaps

perhaps they chiefly ſubſiſted upon animal food and milk. Their clothing was ſkins,—and their fortifications, beams of wood. They were incredibly dexterous in the management of their chariots; and they fought with lances, darts, and ſwords. Women ſometimes led their armies to the field, and were recogniſed as ſovereigns of their particular diſtricts. They favoured the primogeniture or ſeniority in their ſucceſſion to royalty, but ſet it aſide on the ſmalleſt inconvenience attending it. They painted their bodies with woad, which gave them a bluiſh or greeniſh caſt; and they are ſaid to have had figures of animals and heavenly bodies on their ſkins. In their marriages they were not very delicate, for they formed themſelves into what we may call matrimonial clubs. Twelve or fourteen men married as many wives, and each wife was in common to them all, but her children belonged to the original huſband.

The Britons lived during the long reign of Auguſtus Cæſar, rather as the allies than the tributaries of the Romans; but the communications between Rome and Great Britain being then extended, the emperor Claudius Cæſar, about forty-two years after the birth of Chriſt, undertook an expedition in perſon, in which he ſeems to have been ſucceſsful, againſt Britain. His conqueſts, however, were imperfect; Caractacus, and Boadicea, though a woman, made noble ſtands againſt the Romans. The former was taken priſoner after a deſperate battle, and carried to Rome, where his undaunted behaviour before Claudius gained him the admiration of the viſtors, and is celebrated in the hiſtories of the times. Boadicea being oppreſſed in a manner that diſgraces the Roman name, and defeated, diſdained to ſurvive the liberties of her country; and Agricola, general to Domitian, after ſubduing South Britain, carried his arms northwards, as has been already ſeen in the hiſtory of Scotland, where his ſucceſſors had no reaſon to boaſt of their progreſs, every inch of ground being bravely defended. During the time the Romans remained in this iſland, they erected thoſe walls I have ſo often mentioned, to protect the Britons from the invaſions of the Caledonians, Scots, and Picts; and we are told, that the Roman language, learning and cuſtoms, became familiar in Britain. There ſeems to be no great foundation for this aſſertion; and it is more probable that the Romans conſidered Britain chiefly as a nurſery for their armies abroad, on account of the ſuperior ſtrength of body and courage of the inhabitants when diſciplined. That this was the caſe, appears plainly enough from the defenceleſs ſtate of the Britons, when the government of Rome recalled her forces from that iſland. I have already taken notice, that, during the abode of the Romans in Britain, they introduced into it all the luxuries of Italy; and it is certain, that under them the South Britons were reduced to a ſtate of great vaſſalage, and that the genius of liberty retreated northwards, where the natives had made a brave reſiſtance againſt theſe tyrants of the world. For though the Britons were unqueſtionably very brave, when incorporated with the Roman legions abroad, yet we know of no ſtruggle they made in later times, for their independency at home, notwithſtanding the many favourable opportunities that preſented themſelves. The Roman emperors and generals, while in this iſland, aſſiſted by the Britons, were entirely employed in repelling the attacks of the Caledonians and Picts (the latter are thought to have been the ſouthern Britons retired northwards), and they appeared to have been in no pain about the ſouthern provinces.

Upon the mighty inundations of thoſe barbarous nations, which, under the names of Goths and Vandals, invaded the Roman empire with infinite numbers, and with danger to Rome itſelf *, the Roman legions were with-

* See the Introduction.

drawn out of Britain, with the flower of the Britiſh youth; for the de fence of the capital and centre of the empire; and that they might leave the iſland with a good grace, they aſſiſted the Britons in rebuilding with ſtone, the wall of Severus between Newcaſtle and Carliſle, which they lined with forts and watch towers; and having done this good office, took their laſt farewell of Britain about the year 448, after having been maſters of the moſt fertile parts of it, if we reckon from the invaſion of Julius Cæſar, near 500 years.

The Scots and Picts finding the whole iſland finally deſerted by the Roman legions, now regarded the whole as their prize, and attacked Severus's wall with redoubled forces, ravaged all before them with a fury peculiar to northern nations in thoſe ages, and which a remembrance of former injuries could not fail to inſpire. The poor Britons, like a helpleſs family deprived of their parent and protector, already ſubdued by their own fears, had again recourſe to Rome, and ſent over their miſerable epiſtle for relief (ſtill upon record), which was addreſſed in theſe words: *To Aetius, thrice conſul: The groans of the Britons*; and after other lamentable complaints, ſaid, *That the barbarians drove them to the ſea, and the ſea back to the barbarians; and they had only the hard choice left of periſhing by the ſword or by the waves.* But having no hopes given them by the Roman general of any ſuccours from that ſide, they began to conſider what other nation they might call over to their relief. Gildas, who was himſelf a Briton, deſcribes the degeneracy of his countrymen at this time in mournful ſtrains, and gives ſome confuſed hints of their officers, and the names of ſome of their kings, particularly one Vortigern, chief of the *Dannonii*, by whoſe advice the Britons ſtruck a bargain with two Saxon chiefs, Hengiſt and Horſa, to protect them from the Scots and Picts. The Saxons were in thoſe days maſters of what is now called the Engliſh channel, and their native countries, comprehending Scandinavia and the northern parts of Germany, being overſtocked with inhabitants, they readily accepted the invitation of the Britons; whom they relieved, by checking the progreſs of the Scots and Picts, and had the iſland of Thanet allowed them for their reſidence. But their own country was ſo populous and barren, and the fertile lands of Britain ſo agreeable and alluring, that in a very little time Hengiſt and Horſa began to meditate a ſettlement for themſelves; and freſh ſupplies of their countrymen arriving daily, the Saxons ſoon became formidable to the Britons, whom, after a violent ſtruggle of near 150 years, they ſubdued, or drove into Wales, where their languages and their deſcendents ſtill remain.

Literature at this time in England was ſo rude, that we know but little of its hiſtory. The Saxons were ignorant of letters, and public tranſactions among the Britons were recorded only by their bards and poets, a ſpecies of men whom they held in great veneration.

It does not fall within my deſign to relate the ſeparate hiſtory of every particular nation that formed the heptarchy. It is ſufficient to ſay, that the pope in Auſtin's time ſupplied England with about 400 monks, and that the Popiſh clergy took care to keep their kings and laity under the moſt deplorable ignorance, but always magnifying the power and ſanctity of his holineſs. Hence it was that the Anglo-Saxons, during their heptarchy, were governed by prieſts and monks; who, as they ſaw convenient, perſuaded their kings either to ſhut themſelves up in cloiſters, or to undertake pilgrimages to Rome, where they finiſhed their days: no leſs than thirty Anglo-Saxon kings, during the heptarchy, reſigned their crowns in that manner, and among them was Ina, king of the Weſt-Saxons, though in other reſpects he was a wiſe and brave prince. The bounty of thoſe

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Anglo-Saxon kings to the ſee of Rome was therefore unlimited; and Ethelwald, king of Mercia, impoſed an annual tax of a penny upon every houſe, which was afterwards known by the name of Peter's pence, becauſe paid on the holiday of *St. Peter ad vincula*, Auguſt 1ſt *.

Under all thoſe diſadvantages of bigotry and barbarity, the Anglo-Saxons were happy in compariſon of the nations on the continent; becauſe they were free from the Saracens, or ſucceſſors of Mahomet, who had erected an empire in the Eaſt upon the ruins of the Roman, and began to extend their ravages over Spain and Italy. London was then a place of very conſiderable trade; and if we are to believe the Saxon chronicles quoted by Tyrrel, Withred, king of Kent, paid at one time to Ina, king of Weſſex, a ſum in ſilver equal to 90,000l. ſterling in the year 694. England, therefore, we may ſuppoſe to have been about this time a refuge for the people of the continent. The venerable but ſuperſtitious Bede, about the year 740, compoſed his church hiſtory of Britain, from the coming in of the Saxons down to the year 731. The Saxon Chronicle is one of the oldeſt and moſt authentic monuments of hiſtory that any nation can produce. Architecture, ſuch as it was, with ſtone and glaſs working was introduced into England; and we read, in 709, of a Northumbrian prelate who was ſerved in ſilver plate. It muſt however be owned, that the Saxon coins, which are generally of copper, are many of them illegible, and all of them mean. Ale and alehouſes are mentioned in the laws of Ina, about the year 728; and in this ſtate was the Saxon heptarchy in England, when, about the year 800, moſt of the Anglo-Saxons, tired out with the tyrannny of their petty kings, united in calling to the government of the heptarchy, Egbert, who was the eldeſt remaining branch of the race of Cerdic, one of the Saxon chiefs who firſt arrived in Britain. On the ſubmiſſion of the Northumbrians in the year 827 he became king of all England.

Charles the Great, otherwiſe Charlemagne, was then king of France, and emperor of Germany. Egbert had been obliged, by ſtate jealouſies, to fly to the court of Charles for protection from the perſecutions of Eadburga, daughter of Offa, wife to Brithric, king of the Weſt Saxons. Egbert acquired, at the court of Charles, the arts both of war and government, and therefore ſoon united the Saxon heptarchy in his own perſon, but without ſubduing Wales. He changed the name of his kingdom into that of Engle-lond or England; but there is reaſon to believe that ſome part of England continued ſtill to be governed by independent princes of the blood of Cerdic, though they paid perhaps a ſmall tribute to Egbert, who died in the year 838, at Wincheſter, his chief reſidence.

Egbert was ſucceeded by his ſon Ethelwolf, who divided his power with his eldeſt ſon Athelſtan. By this time England had become a ſcene of blood and ravages, through the renewal of the Daniſh invaſions; and Ethelwolf, after ſome time bravely oppoſing them, retired in a fit of devotion to Rome, to which he carried with him his youngeſt ſon, afterwards the famous Alfred, the father of the Engliſh conſtitution. The gifts which Ethelwolf made to the clergy on this occaſion (copies of which are ſtill remaining) are ſo prodigious, even the tithes of all his dominions, that they ſhew his brain to have been touched by his devotion, or guided by the arts of Swithin biſhop of Wincheſter. Upon his death, after his return from Rome, he divided his dominions between two of his ſons (Athelſtan being then dead), Ethelbald and Ethelbert, but we know of no patrimony that was left to young Alfred. Ethelbert, who was the

* This tax was impoſed at firſt for the ſupport of a college at Rome, for the education of Engliſh youth, founded by Ina, king of Weſſex, under the name of *Rome-Scot*, but in proceſs of time the popes claimed it as a tribute due to St. Peter and his ſucceſſors.

ſurviving ſon, left his kingdom, in 866, to his brother Ethelred: in whoſe time, notwithſtanding the courage and conduct of Alfred, the Danes became maſters of the ſea-coaſt, and the fineſt counties in England. Ethelred being killed, his brother Alfred mounted the throne in 871. He was one of the greateſt princes, both in peace and war, mentioned in hiſtory. He fought ſeven battles with the Danes with various ſucceſs, and when defeated, he found reſources that rendered him as terrible as before. He was, however, at one time reduced to an uncommon ſtate of diſtreſs, being forced to live in the diſguiſe of a cow-herd: but ſtill he kept up a ſecret correſpondence with his brave friends, whom he collected together, and by their aſſiſtance he gave the Danes many ſignal overthrows, till at laſt he recovered the kingdom of England, and obliged the Danes, who had been ſettled in it, to ſwear obedience to his government; even part of Wales courted his protection; ſo that he is thought to have been the moſt powerful monarch that had ever reigned in England.

Among the other glories of Alfred's reign, was that of raiſing a maritime power in England, by which he ſecured her coaſts from future invaſions. He rebuilt the city of London, which had been burnt down by the Danes, and founded the univerſity of Oxford about the year 895: he divided England into counties, hundreds, and tythings; or rather he revived thoſe diviſions, and the uſe of juries, which had fallen into deſuetude by the ravages of the Danes. Having been educated at Rome, he was himſelf not only a ſcholar, but an author; and he tells us himſelf, that upon his acceſſion to the throne he had ſcarcely a lay ſubject who could read Engliſh, or an eccleſiaſtic who underſtood Latin. He introduced ſtone and brick building into general uſe in palaces as well as churches, though it is certain that his ſubjects, for many years after his death, were fond of timber buildings. His encouragement of commerce and navigation may ſeem incredible to modern times, but he had merchants who traded in Eaſt India jewels; and William of Malmſbury ſays, that ſome of their gems were repoſited in the church of Sherborne in his time. He received from one Octher, about the year 890, a full diſcovery of the coaſt of Norway and Lapland, as far as Ruſſia; and he tells the king, in his memorial, printed by Hakluyt, "that he ſailed along the Norway coaſt, ſo far north as commonly the whale-hunters uſed to travel." He invited numbers of learned men into his dominions, and found faithful and uſeful allies in the two Scotch kings, his contemporaries, Gregory and Donald, againſt the Danes. He is ſaid to have fought no leſs than fifty-ſix pitched battles with thoſe barbarians. He was inexorable againſt his corrupt judges, whom he uſed to hang up in the public highways, as a terror to evil doers. He died in the year 901, and his character is ſo completely aimable and heroic, that he is juſtly diſtinguiſhed with the epithet of the Great. I have been the more diffuſe on the hiſtory of Alfred's reign, as it is the moſt glorious of any in the Engliſh annals, though it did not extend to foreign conqueſts.

Alfred was ſucceeded by his ſon Edward the Elder, under whom, though a brave prince, the Danes renewed their barbarities and invaſions. He died in the year 925, and was ſucceeded by his eldeſt ſon Athelſtan. This prince was ſuch an encourager of commerce, as to make a law, that every merchant who made three voyages on his own account to the Mediterranean, ſhould be put upon a footing with a *thane* or *nobleman* of the firſt rank. He cauſed the Scriptures to be tranſlated into the Saxon tongue. He encouraged coinage, and we find by his laws, that archbiſhops, biſhops, and even abbots, had then the privilege of minting money. His dominions appear, however, to have been confined towards the north by the Danes,

Danes, although his vaſſals ſtill kept a footing in thoſe counties. He was engaged in perpetual wars with his neighbours, the Scots in particular, and was generally ſucceſsful, and died in 941. The reigns of his ſucceſſors, Edmund, Edred, and Edwy, were weak and inglorious, they being either engaged in wars with the Danes, or diſgraced by the influence of prieſts. Edgar, who mounted the throne about the year 959, revived the naval glory of England, and is ſaid to have been rowed down the river Dee by eight kings his vaſſals, he ſitting at the helm; but, like his predeceſſors, he was the ſlave of prieſts, particularly St. Dunſtan. His reign, however, was pacific and glorious, though he was obliged to cede to the Scots all the territory to the north of the Tyne. He was ſucceeded in 975 by his eldeſt ſon Edward, who was barbarouſly murdered by his ſtep-mother, whoſe ſon Ethelred, by the help of prieſts, mounted the throne in 978. The Engliſh nation at this time, was over-run with barbarians, and the Danes by degrees became poſſeſſed of the fineſt parts of the country, while their countrymen made ſometimes dreadful deſcents in the weſtern parts. To get rid of them, he agreed to pay them 30,000l. which was levied by way of tax, and called *Danegeld*, and was the firſt land tax in England. In the year 1002 they had made ſuch ſettlements in England, that Ethelred was obliged to give away to a general maſſacre of them by the Engliſh; but it is improbable that it was ever put into execution. Some attempts of that kind were undoubtedly made in particular counties, but they ſerved only to enrage the Daniſh king Swein, who, in 1013, drove Ethelred, his queen and two ſons, out of England into Normandy, a province of France, at that time governed by its own princes, ſtyled the dukes of Normandy. Swein being killed, was ſucceeded by his ſon Canute the Great: but Ethelred returning to England, forced Canute to retire to Denmark, from whence he invaded England with a vaſt army, and obliged Edmund Ironſide, (ſo called for his great bodily ſtrength) Ethelred's ſon, to divide with him the kingdom. Upon Edmund's being aſſaſſinated, Canute ſucceeded to the undivided kingdom; and dying in 1035, his ſon, Harold Harefoot, did nothing memorable; and his ſucceſſor Hardicanute, was ſo degenerate a prince, that the Daniſh royalty ended with him in England.

The family of Ethelred was now called to the throne; and Edward, who is commonly called the Confeſſor, mounted it, though Edgar Atheling by being deſcended from an elder branch, had the lineal right, and was alive. Upon the death of the Confeſſor, in the year 1066, Harold, ſon to Goodwin earl of Kent, mounted the throne of England.

William duke of Normandy, though a baſtard, was then in the undiſputed poſſeſſion of that great duchy, and reſolved to aſſert his right to the crown of England. For that purpoſe he invited the neighbouring princes, as well as his own vaſſals, to join him, and made liberal promiſes to his followers, of lands and honours in England, to induce them to aſſiſt him effectually. By theſe means he collected 40,000 of the braveſt and moſt regular troops in Europe, and while Harold was embroiled with the freſh invaſions from the Danes, William landed in England without oppoſition. Harold, returning from the North, encountered William in the place where the town of Battle now ſtands, which has its name from it, near Haſtings in Suſſex, and a moſt bloody battle was fought between the two armies; but Harold being killed, the crown of England devolved upon William, in the year 1066.

We have very particular accounts of the value of proviſions and manufactures in thoſe days; a palfrey coſt 1 s. an acre of land (according to biſhop Fleetwood in his Chronicon Pretioſum) 1 s. a hide of land containing 100 acres, 100 s. but ther is great difficulty in forming the proportion

of value which thoſe ſhillings bore to the preſent ſtandard of money, though many ingenious treatiſes have been written on that head. A ſheep was eſtimated at 1s. an ox was computed at 6s. a cow at 4s. a man at 3l. The board-wages of a child the firſt year was 8s. The tenants of Shireburn were obliged at their choice to pay either 6d. or four hens. Silk and cotton were quite unknown. Linen was not much uſed. In the Saxon times, land was divided among all the male children of the deceaſed. Entails were ſometimes practiſed in thoſe times.

With regard to the manners of the Anglo-Saxons we can ſay little, but that they were in general a rude uncultivated people, ignorant of letters, unſkilful in the mechanical arts, untamed to ſubmiſſion under law and government, addicted to intemperance, riot, and diſorder. Even ſo low as the reign of Canute, they ſold their children and kindred into foreign parts. Their beſt quality was their military courage, which yet was not ſupported by diſcipline or conduct. Even the Norman hiſtorians, notwithſtanding the low ſtate of the arts in their own country, ſpeak of them as barbarians, when they mention the invaſion made upon them by the duke of Normandy. Conqueſt put the people in a ſituation of receiving ſlowly from abroad all the rudiments of ſcience and cultivation, and of correcting their rough and licentious manners. Their uncultivated ſtate might be owing to the clergy, who always diſcouraged manufactures.

We are however to diſtinguiſh between the ſecular clergy, and the regulars or monks. Many of the former, among the Anglo-Saxons, were men of exemplary lives and excellent magiſtrates. The latter depended upon the ſee of Rome, and directed the conſcience of the king and the great men, and were generally ignorant, and often a bloody ſet. A great deal of the Saxon barbariſm was likewiſe owing to the Daniſh invaſions, which left little room for civil or literary improvements. Amidſt all thoſe defects, public and perſonal liberty were well underſtood and guarded by the Saxon inſtitutions; and we owe to them at this day the moſt valuable privileges of the Engliſh ſubjects.

The loſs which both ſides ſuffered at the battle of Haſtings is uncertain. Anglo-Saxon authors ſay, that Harold was ſo impatient to fight, he attacked William with half of his army, ſo that the advantage of numbers was on the ſide of the Norman; and, indeed, the death of Harold ſeems to have decided the day; and William, with very little farther difficulty, took poſſeſſion of the throne, and made a conſiderable alteration in the conſtitution of England, by converting lands into knights' fees*, which are ſaid to have amounted to 62,000, and were held of the Norman and other great perſons who had aſſiſted him in his conqueſt, and who were bound to attend him with their knights and their followers in his wars. He gave for inſtance to one of his barons, the whole county of Cheſter, which he erected into a palatinate, and rendered by his grant almoſt independent of the crown; and here, according to ſome hiſtorians, we have the riſe of the feudal law in England. William found it no eaſy matter to keep poſſeſſion of his crown. Edgar Atheling, and his ſiſter, the next Anglo-Saxon heirs, were affectionately received in Scotland, and many of the Saxon lords took arms, and formed conſpiracies in England. William got the better of all difficulties, eſpecially after he had made a peace with Malcolm king of Scotland, who married Atheling's ſiſter; but not without exerciſing horrible cruelties upon the Anglo-Saxons. He introduced

* Four hides of land made one knight's fee; a barony was twelve times greater than that of a knight's fee; and when Doomſday-book was framed, the number of great barons amounted to 700.

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the Norman laws and language. He built the ſtone ſquare tower at London, commonly called the White Tower; bridled the country with forts, and diſarmed the old inhabitants; in ſhort, he attempted every thing poſſible to obliterate every trace of the Anglo-Saxon conſtitution; though, at his coronation, he took the ſame oath that uſed to be taken by the ancient Saxon kings.

He cauſed a general ſurvey of all the lands in England to be made, or rather to be completed (for it was begun in Edward the Confeſſor's time), and an account to be taken of the villains or ſervile tenants, ſlaves, and live ſtock, upon each eſtate; all which were recorded in a book called Doomſday-book, which is now kept in the Exchequer. But the repoſe of this fortunate and victorious king was diſturbed in his old age, by the rebellion of his eldeſt ſon Robert, who had been appointed governor of Normandy, but now aſſumed the government as ſovereign of that province, in which he was favoured by the king of France. And here we have the riſe of the wars between England and France; which have continued longer, drawn more noble blood, and been attended with more memorable achievements, than any other national quarrel we read of in ancient or modern hiſtory. William ſeeing a war inevitable, entered upon it with his uſual vigour; and with incredible celerity, tranſporting a brave Engliſh army, invaded France, where he was every where victorious, but died before he had finiſhed the war, in the year 1087, the ſixty-firſt year of his age, and twenty-firſt of his reign in England, and was buried in his own abbey at Caen in Normandy.

The above are the moſt material tranſactions of William's reign; and it may be further obſerved, that by the Norman conqueſt, England not only loſt the true line of her ancient Saxon kings, but alſo her principal nobility, who either fell in battle in defence of their country and liberties, or fled to foreign countries, particularly Scotland, where, being kindly received by king Malcolm, they eſtabliſhed themſelves; and what is very remarkable, introduced the Saxon or Engliſh, which has been the prevailing language in the Lowlands of Scotland to this day.

On the other hand, England, by virtue of the conqueſt, became much greater, both in dominion and power, by the acceſſion of ſo much territory upon the continent. For though the Normans, by the conqueſt, gained much of the Engliſh land and riches, yet England gained the large and fertile dukedom of Normandy, which became a province to this crown. England likewiſe gained much by the great increaſe of naval power, and multitude of ſhips wherein Normandy then abounded. This, with the perpetual intercourſe between England and the continent, gave us an increaſe of trade and commerce, and of treaſure to the crown and kingdom, as appeared ſoon afterwards. England, by the conqueſt, gained likewiſe a natural right to the dominion of the channel, which had been before acquired only by the greater naval power of Edgar, and other Saxon kings. But the dominion of the narrow ſeas ſeem naturally to belong, like that of rivers, to thoſe who poſſeſs the banks or coaſts on both ſides; and ſo to have ſtrengthened the former title, by ſo long a coaſt as that of Normandy on one ſide, and of England on the other ſide of the Channel. This dominion of the Channel, though we have long ago loſt all our poſſeſſions in France, we have continued to defend and maintain by the bravery of our ſeamen, and the ſuperior ſtrength of our navy to any other power.

The ſucceſſion to the crown of England was diſputed between the Conqueror's ſons Robert and William (commonly called Rufus, from his being red-haired) and was carried in favour of the latter. He was a brave and intrepid prince, but no friend to the clergy, who have there-

fore been unfavourable to his memory. He was likewife hated by the Normans, who loved his elder brother; and conſequently he was engaged in perpetual wars with his brothers, and rebellious ſubjects. About this time the cruſades of the Holy Land began; and Robert, who was among the firſt to engage, accommodated matters with William for a ſum of money, which he levied from the clergy. William behaved with great generoſity towards Edgar Atheling and the court of Scotland, notwithſtanding all the provocations he had received from that quarter; but was accidentally killed as he was hunting in New Foreſt in Hampſhire, in the year 1100, and the forty-fourth year of his age.

This prince built Weſtminſter-hall, as it now ſtands, and added ſeveral works to the tower, which he ſurrounded with a wall and a ditch. In the year 1100 happened that inundation of the ſea, which overflowed great part of earl Goodwin's eſtate in Kent, and formed thoſe ſhallows in the Downs, now called the Goodwin Sands.

He was ſucceeded by his brother Henry I. ſurnamed Beauclerc, on account of his learning, though his brother Robert was then returning from the Holy Land. Henry may be ſaid to have purchaſed the throne, firſt by his brother's treaſures, which he ſeized at Wincheſter; ſecondly, by a charter in which he reſtored his ſubjects to the rights and privileges they had enjoyed under the Anglo-ſaxon kings; and thirdly, by his marriage with Matilda, daughter of Malcolm III. king of Scotland, and niece to Edgar Atheling, of the ancient Saxon line. His reign in a great meaſure reſtored the clergy to their influence in the ſtate, and they formed, as it were, a ſeparate body dependent upon the pope, which afterwards created great convulſions in England. Henry, partly by force and partly by ſtratagem, made himſelf maſter of his brother Robert's perſon, and duchy of Normandy; and with the moſt ungenerous meanneſs, detained him a priſoner for twenty-eight years, till the time of his death, and in the mean while Henry quieted his conſcience by founding an abbey. He was afterwards engaged in a bloody but ſucceſsful war with France; and before his death he ſettled the ſucceſſion upon his daughter, the empreſs Matilda, widow to Henry IV. emperor of Germany, and her ſon Henry, by her ſecond huſband Geoffry Plantagenet, earl of Anjou. Henry died of a ſurfeit in the ſeventy-eighth year of his age, in 1135.

Notwithſtanding the late ſettlement of ſucceſſion, the crown of England was claimed, and ſeized by Stephen earl of Blois, the ſon of Adela, fourth daughter to William the Conqueror. Matilda and her ſon were then abroad; and Stephen was aſſiſted in his uſurpation by his brother the biſhop of Wincheſter, and the other great prelates, that he might hold the crown dependent as it were, upon them. Matilda, however, found a generous protector in her uncle, David, king of Scotland; and a worthy ſubject in her natural brother Robert Earl of Glouceſter, who headed her party before her ſon grew up. A long and bloody war enſued, the clergy having abſolved Stephen and all his friends from their guilt of breaking the act of ſucceſſion; but at length, the barons, who dreaded the power of the clergy, inclined towards Matilda; and Stephen, who depended chiefly on foreign mercenaries, having been abandoned by the clergy, was defeated and taken priſoner in 1141; and being carried before Matilda, ſhe ſcornfully upbraided him, and ordered him to be put in chains.

Matilda was proud and weak; the clergy were bold and ambitious; and when joined with the nobility, who were factious and turbulent, were an overmatch for the crown. They demanded to be governed by the

the Saxon laws, according to the charter that had been granted by Henry I. upon his acceſſion: and finding Matilda refractory, they drove her out of England in 1142. Stephen, having been exchanged for the earl of Glouceſter who had been taken priſoner likewiſe, upon his obtaining his liberty, found that his clergy and nobility had in fact excluded him from the government, by building 1100 caſtles, where each owner lived as an independent prince. We do not, however, find that this alleviated the feudal ſubjection of the inferior ranks. Stephen was ill enough adviſed to attempt to force them into compliance with his will, by declaring his ſon Euſtace heir apparent to the kingdom; and this exaſperated the clergy ſo much, that they invited over young Henry of Anjou, who had been acknowledged duke of Normandy and was ſon to the empreſs; and he accordingly landed in England with an army of foreigners.

This meaſure divided the clergy from the barons, who were apprehenſive of a ſecond conqueſt; and the earl of Arundel, with the heads of the lay ariſtocracy, propoſed an accommodation, to which both parties agreed. Stephen, who about that time loſt his ſon Euſtace, was to retain the name and office of king; but Henry, who was in fact inveſted with the chief executive power, was acknowledged his ſucceſſor. Though this accommodation was only precarious and imperfect, yet it was received by the Engliſh, who had bled at every pore during the late civil wars, with great joy; and Stephen dying very opportunely, Henry mounted the throne, without a rival, in 1154.

Henry II. ſurnamed Plantagenet, was by far the greateſt prince of his time. He ſoon diſcovered amazing abilities for government, and had performed, in the ſixteenth year of his age, actions that would have dignified the moſt experienced warriors. At his acceſſion to the throne, he found the condition of the Engliſh boroughs greatly bettered, by the privileges granted them in the ſtruggles between their late kings and the nobility. Henry perceived the good policy of this, and brought the boroughs to ſuch a height, that if a boudman or ſervant remained in a borough a year and a day, he was by ſuch reſidence made free. He erected Wallingford, Wincheſter, and Oxford, into free boroughs, for the ſervices the inhabitants had done to his mother and himſelf; by diſcharging them from every burthen, excepting the fixed fee-farm rent of ſuch towns; and this throughout all England excepting London. This gave a vaſt acceſſion of power to the crown, becauſe the crown alone could ſupport the boroughs againſt their feudal tyrants, and enabled Henry to reduce his overgrown nobility.

Without being very ſcrupulous in adhering to his former engagements, he reſumed the exceſſive grants of crown lands made by Stephen, which were repreſented as illegal. He demoliſhed many of the caſtles that had been built by the barons; but when he came to touch the clergy, he found their uſurpations not to be ſhaken. He perceived that the root of all their enormous diſorders lay in Rome, where the popes had exempted churchmen, not only from lay courts, but civil taxes. The bloody cruelties and diſorders occaſioned by thoſe exemptions, all over the kingdom, would be incredible, were they not atteſted by the moſt unexceptionable evidences. Unfortunately for Henry, the head of the Engliſh church, and chancellor of the kingdom, was the celebrated Thomas Becket. This man, powerful from his office, and ſtill more ſo by his popularity, ariſing from a pretended ſanctity, was violent, intrepid, and a determined enemy to temporal power of every kind, but withal cool and politic. The king aſſembled his nobility at Clarendon

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the name of which place is ſtill famous for the conſtitutions there enacted, which, in fact, aboliſhed the authority of the Romiſh ſee over the Engliſh clergy. Becket finding it in vain to reſiſt the ſtream, ſigned thoſe conſtitutions till they could be ratified by the pope; who, as he foreſaw, rejected them. Henry, though a prince of the moſt determined ſpirit of any of his time, was then embroiled with all his neighbours; and the ſee of Rome was at the ſame time in its meridian grandeur. Becket having been arraigned and convicted of robbing the public, while he was chancellor, fled to France, where the pope and the French king eſpouſed his quarrel. The effect was, that all the Engliſh clergy who were on the king's ſide were excommunicated, and the ſubjects abſolved from their allegiance. This diſconcerted Henry ſo much, that he ſubmitted to treat, and even to be inſulted by his rebel prelate, who returned triumphantly through the ſtreets of London in 1170. His return ſwelled his pride, and increaſed his inſolence, till both became inſupportable to Henry, who was then in Normandy. Finding that he was in fact only the firſt ſubject in his own dominions, he was heard to ſay, in the anguiſh of his heart, "Is there none who would revenge his monarch's cauſe upon this audacious prieſt?" Theſe words reached the ears of four knights, Reginald Fitzurſe, William de Tracy, Hugh de Morville, and Richard Brito; and, without acquainting Henry with their intentions, they went over to England, where they beat out Becket's brains before the altar of his own church at Canterbury, in the year 1171. Henry was in no condition to ſecond the blind obedience of his knights; and the public reſentment roſe ſo high, on the ſuppoſition that he was privy to the murder, that he ſubmitted to be ſcourged by monks at the tomb of the pretended martyr.

Henry, in conſequence of his well known maxim, endeavoured to cancel all the grants which had been made by Stephen to the royal family of Scotland, and actually reſumed their moſt valuable poſſeſſions in the north of England. This occaſioned a war between the two kingdoms, in which William king of Scotland was taken priſoner; and, to deliver himſelf from captivity, was obliged to pay liege homage to king Henry for his kingdom of Scotland, and for all his other dominions. It was alſo agreed, that liege homage ſhould be done, and fealty ſworn to Henry, without reſerve or exception, by all the earls and barons of the territories of the king of Scotland, from whom Henry ſhould deſire it, in the ſame manner as by his other vaſſals. The heirs of the king of Scotland, and the heirs of his earls, barons, and tenants in chief, were likewiſe obliged ro render liege homage to the heirs of the king of England.

Henry likewiſe diſtinguiſhed his reign by the conqueſt of Ireland: and by marrying Eleanor the divorced queen of France, but the heireſs of Guienne and Poitou, he became almoſt as powerful in France as the French king himſelf, and the greateſt prince in Chriſtendom. In his old age, however, he was far from being fortunate. He had a turn for pleaſure, and embarraſſed himſelf in intrigues with women, particularly the fair Roſamond, which were reſented by his queen Eleanor, to her ſeducing her ſons, Henry, (whom his father had unadviſedly cauſed to be crowned in his own lifetime), Richard and John, into repeated rebellions, which affected him ſo much as to throw him into a fever, and he died at Chinon, in France, in the year 1189, and 57th of his age. The ſum he left in ready money at his death, has perhaps been exaggerated, but the moſt moderate accounts make it amount to 200,000l. of our money.

During the reign of Henry, corporation charters were eſtabliſhed all

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over England; by which, as I have already hinted, the power of the barons was greatly reduced. Thoſe corporations encouraged trade; but manufactures, eſpecially thoſe of ſilk, ſeem ſtill to have been confined to Spain and Italy; for the ſilk coronation robes, made uſe of by young Henry and his queen, coſt 87l. 10s. 4d. in the ſheriff of London's accounts, printed by Mr. Maddox: a vaſt ſum in thoſe days. Henry introduced the uſe of glaſs in windows into England, and ſtone arches in building.

In this reign, and in thoſe barbarous ages, it was a cuſtom in London, for great numbers, to the amount of a hundred or more of the ſons and relations of eminent citizens, to form themſelves into a licentious confederacy, to break into rich houſes and plunder them, to rob and murder paſſengers, and to commit, with impunity, all ſorts of diſorders. Henry, about the year 1176, divided England into ſix parts, called *circuits*, appointing judges to go at certain times of the year and hold *aſſizes*, or adminiſter juſtice to the people, as is practiſed at this day.

Henry ſo far aboliſhed the barbarous and abſurd practice of forfeiting ſhips, which had been wrecked on the coaſt, that if one man or animal were alive in the ſhip, the veſſel and goods were reſtored to the owners. This prince was alſo the firſt who levied a tax on the moveable and perſonal eſtate of his ſubjects, nobles as well as people. To ſhew the genius of theſe ages, it may not be improper to mention the quarrel between Roger archbiſhop of York, and Richard archbiſhop of Canterbury. We may judge of the violence of military men and laymen, when eccleſiaſtics could proceed to ſuch extremities. The pope's legate having ſummoned an aſſembly of the clergy at London, and as both the archbiſhops pretended to ſit on his right hand, this queſtion of precedency begot a controverſy between them. The monks and retainers of archbiſhop Richard fell upon Roger, in the preſence of the cardinal and of the ſynod, threw him on the ground, trampled him under foot, and ſo bruiſed him with blows, that he was taken up half dead, and his life was with difficulty ſaved from their violence.

Richard I. ſurnamed Cœur de Lion, from his great courage, was the third, but eldeſt ſurviving ſon of Henry II. The clergy had found means to gain him over, and for their own ends they perſuaded him to make a moſt magnificent but ruinous cruſade to the Holy land, where he took Aſcalon, and performed actions of valour, that gave countenance even to the fables of antiquity. After ſeveral glorious, but fruitleſs campaigns, he made a truce of three years with Saladin emperor of the Saracens; and in his return to England he was treacherouſly ſurpriſed by the duke of Auſtria; who, in 1193, ſent him a priſoner to the emperor Henry VI. His ranſom was fixed by the ſordid emperor at 150,000 marks; about 300,000l. of our preſent money.

While the Scottiſh kings enjoyed their lands in England, they found it their intereſt, once generally in every king's reign, to perform the liege homage; but when they were deprived of their ſaid lands, they paid no more homage*.

Woollen broad cloths were made in England at this time. An ox ſold for three ſhillings, which anſwers to nine ſhillings of our money, and a

* It appears, however, that William I. king of Scotland, and his ſubjects, conſented to do homage to the king of England and his heirs, to all perpetuity, to be their ſovereigns and liege lords, and that they did homage for the kingdom of Scotland accordingly: but this diſadvantage was given up by Richard I. Vide lord Lyttleton's Hiſtory of Henry II. Vol. v. p. 220, 223, 235. 8vo. edit.

ſheep

ſheep at four pence, or one ſhilling. Weights and meaſures were now ordered to be the ſame all over the kingdom. Richard was ſlain in beſieging the caſtle of Chalons in the year 1199, the 42d of his age, and 10th of his reign.

The reign of his brother John, who ſucceeded him, is infamous in the Engliſh Hiſtory. He is ſaid to have put to death Arthur the eldeſt ſon of his brother Geoffrey, who had the hereditary right to the crown. The young prince's mother, Conſtance, complained to Philip, the king of France; who, upon John's non-appearance at his court as a vaſſal, deprived him of Normandy. John, notwithſtanding, in his wars with the French, Scotch and Iriſh, gave many proofs of perſonal valour; but became at laſt ſo apprehenſive of a French invaſion, that he rendered himſelf a tributary to the pope, and laid his crown and regalia at the foot of the legate Pandulph, who kept them for five days. The great barons reſented his meanneſs, by taking arms; but he repeated his ſhameful ſubmiſſions to the pope; and after experiencing various fortunes of war, John was at laſt brought ſo low, that the barons obliged him, in 1216, to ſign the great deed ſo well known by the name of *Magna Charta*. Though this charter is deemed the foundation of Engliſh liberty, yet it is in fact no other than a renewal of thoſe immunities which the barons and their followers had poſſeſſed under the Saxon princes, and which they claimed by the charters of Henry I. and Henry II. As the principles of liberty, however, came to be more enlarged, and property to be better ſecured, this charter, by various ſubſequent acts and explanations, came to be applicable to every Engliſh ſubject, as well as to the barons, knights, and burgeſſes. John had ſcarcely ſigned it, but he retracted, and called upon the pope for protection; when the barons withdrew their allegiance from John, and transferred it to Lewis, the eldeſt ſon of Philip Auguſtus, king of France. This gave umbrage to the pope; and the barons being apprehenſive of their country becoming a province to France, they returned to John's allegiance; but he was unable to protect them, till the pope refuſed to confirm the title of Lewis. John died in 1216, in the 18th year of his reign, and the 49th of his age, juſt as he had a glimpſe of his reſuming his authority.

The city of London owes ſome of her privileges to him. The office of mayor, before his reign, was for life; but he gave them a charter to chuſe a mayor out of their own body, annually, and to elect their ſheriffs and common-council annually, as at preſent.

England was in a deplorable ſituation when her crown devolved upon Henry III. the late king's ſon, who was but nine years of age. The earl of Pembroke was choſen his guardian; and the pope taking part with the young prince, the French were defeated and driven out of the kingdom, and their king obliged to renounce all claims upon the crown of England. The regent, earl of Pembroke, who had thus retrieved the independency of his country, died 1219, and the regency devolved upon the biſhop of Wincheſter. The king was of a ſoft, pliable diſpoſition, and had been perſuaded to violate the Great Charter. Indeed he ſeemed always endeavouring to evade the privileges which he had been compelled to grant and confirm. An aſſociation of the barons was formed againſt him and his government; and a civil war breaking out, Henry ſeemed to be abandoned by all but his Gaſcons and foreign mercenaries. His profuſion brought him into inexpreſſible difficulties; and the famous Stephen Montfort, who had married his ſiſter, and was made earl of Leiceſter, being choſen general of the aſſociation, the king and his two ſons were defeated, and taken priſoners at the battle of Lewes. A difference happening between Mont-

fort and the earl of Glouceſter, a nobleman of great authority, prince Edward, Henry's eldeſt ſon, obtained his liberty, and aſſembling as many as he could of his father's ſubjects, who were jealous of Montfort, and weary of the tyranny of the barons, he gave battle to the rebels, whom he defeated at Evetham, Auguſt 4th, 1265, and killed Montfort. The repreſentatives of the commons of England, both knights and burgeſſes, formed now part of the Engliſh legiſlature, in a ſeparate houſe, and this gave the firſt blow to feudal tenures in England: but hiſtorians are not agreed in what manner the commons before this time formed any part of the Engliſh parliaments or great councils. Prince Edward being afterwards engaged in a cruſade, Henry, during his abſence, died in 1272, the ſixty-fourth year of his age, and fifty-ſixth of his reign, which was uncomfortable and inglorious; and yet, to the ſtruggles of this reign, the people in great meaſure owe the liberties of the preſent day. Intereſt had in that age mounted to an enormous height. There are inſtances of 50 per cent. being paid for money, which tempted the Jews to remain in England, notwithſtanding the grievous oppreſſions they laboured under, from the bigotry of the age, and Henry's extortions. In 1255 Henry made a freſh demand of 8000 marks from the Jews, and threatened to hang them if they refuſed compliance. They now loſt all patience, and deſired leave to retire with their effects out of the kingdom: but the king replied, "How can I remedy the oppreſſion you complain of? I am myſelf a beggar; I am deſpoiled; I am ſtripped of all my revenues; I owe above 200,000 marks; and if I had ſaid 400,000 I ſhould not exceed the truth; I am obliged to pay my ſon prince Edward 15,000 marks a year; I have not a farthing, and I muſt have money from any hand, from any quarter, or by any means." King John, his father, once demanded 10,000 marks from a Jew at Briſtol; and on his refuſal, ordered one of his teeth to be drawn every day till he ſhould conſent. The Jew loſt ſeven teeth, and then paid the ſum required of him. Trial by *ordeal* was now entirely diſuſed, and that by *duel* diſcouraged. Bracton's famous law treatiſe was publiſhed in this reign.

Edward returning to England, on the news of his father's death, invited all who held of his crown *in capite*, to his coronation dinner, which conſiſted (that the reader may have ſome idea of the luxury of the times) of 278 bacon hogs, 450 hogs, 440 oxen, 430 ſheep, 22,600 hens and capons, and thirteen fat goats. (See Rymer's Fœdera.) Alexander III. king of Scotland, was at the ſolemnity, and on the occaſion 500 horſes were let looſe, for all that could catch them to keep them.

Edward was a brave and politic prince; and being perfectly well acquainted with the laws, intereſts, and conſtitution of his kingdom, his regulations and reformations of his laws, have juſtly given him the title of the Engliſh Juſtinian. He paſſed the famous Mortmain act, whereby all perſons "were reſtrained from giving, by will or *otherwiſe*, their eſtates to (thoſe *ſo called*) religious purpoſes, and the ſocieties that never die, without a licence from the crown." He granted certain privileges to the Cinque Ports, which though now very inconſiderable, were then obliged to attend the king when he went beyond ſea, with fifty-ſeven ſhips, each having twenty armed ſoldiers on board, and to maintain them at their own coſts for the ſpace of fifteen days. He reduced the Welch to pay him tribute, and annexed that principality to his crown, and was the firſt who gave the title of prince of Wales to his eldeſt ſon.

His vaſt connexions with the continent were productive of many benefits to his ſubjects, particularly by the introduction of reading-glaſſes and ſpectacles; though they are ſaid to have been invented in the late reign, by the famous friar Bacon. Windmills were erected in England about the

ſame

ſame time, and the regulation of gold and ſilver workmanſhip was aſcertained by an aſſay, and mark of the goldſmith's company. After all, Edward's continental wars were unfortunate both to himſelf and the Engliſh, by draining them of their wealth; and it is thought that he too much neglected the woollen manufactures of his kingdom. He was often embroiled with the pope, eſpecially upon the affairs of Scotland; and he died in 1307, in the ſixty-ninth year of his age, and thirty-fifth of his reign, while he was upon a freſh expedition to exterminate that people. He ordered his heart to be ſent to the Holy Land, with 32,000l. for the maintainance of what is called the *Holy Sepulchre*.

His ſon and ſucceſſor Edward II. ſhewed early diſpoſitions for encouraging favourites; but Gaveſton, his chief minion, a Gaſcon, being baniſhed by his father Edward, he mounted the throne with vaſt advantages, both political and perſonal, all which he ſoon forfeited by his own imprudence. He recalled Gaveſton, and loaded him with honours, and married Iſabella, daughter of the French king, who reſtored to him part of the territories which Edward I. had loſt in France. The barons, however, obliged him once more to baniſh his favourite, and to confirm the Great Charter, while king Robert Bruce recovered all Scotland, excepting the caſtle of Stirling; near to which, at Bannockburn, Edward in perſon received the greateſt defeat England ever ſuffered, in 1314. Gaveſton being beheaded by the barons, they fixed upon young Hugh Spencer as a ſpy upon the king; but he ſoon became his favourite. He, through his pride, avarice, and ambition, was baniſhed, together with his father whom he had procured to be made earl of Wincheſter. The queen, a furious, ambitious woman, perſuaded her huſband to recall the Spencers, while the common people, from their hatred to the barons, joined the king's ſtandard, and after defeating them, reſtored him to the exerciſe of all his prerogatives. A cruel uſe was made of thoſe ſucceſſes, and many noble patriots, with their eſtates, fell victims to the queen's revenge; but at laſt ſhe became enamoured with Roger Mortimer, who was her priſoner, and had been one of the moſt active of the anti-royaliſt lords. A breach between her and the Spencers, ſoon followed, and going over to France with her lover, ſhe found means to form ſuch a party in England, that, returning with ſome French troops, ſhe put the eldeſt Spencer to an ignominious death, made her huſband priſoner, and forced him to abdicate his crown in favour of his ſon Edward III. then fifteen years of age. Nothing now but the death of Edward II. was wanting to complete her guilt; and he was moſt barbarouſly murdered in Berkley-caſtle, by ruffians, ſuppoſed to be employed by her and her paramour Mortimer, in the year 1327.

Upon an average, the difference of living, then and now, ſeems to be nearly as 5 or 6 is to 1, always remembering that their money contained thrice as much ſilver as our money or coin of the ſame denomination does. Thus, for example, if a gooſe then coſt 2d. $\frac{1}{2}$, that is 7d. $\frac{1}{2}$, of our money, or according to the proportion of 6 to 1, it would now coſt us 3s. 9d. The knights Templars were ſuppreſſed in this reign, owing to their enormous vices.

Edward III. mounted the throne in 1327. He was then under the tuition of his mother, who cohabited with Mortimer; and they endeavoured to keep poſſeſſion of their power by executing many popular meaſures, and putting an end to all national differences with Scotland, for which Mortimer was created earl of March. Edward, young as he was, was ſoon ſenſible of their deſigns. He ſurpriſed them in perſon at the head of a few choſen friends in the caſtle of Nottingham. Mortimer was put to a public death, hanged as a traitor at the common gallows at Tyburn, and the

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queen herſelf was ſhut up in confinement twenty-eight years, to her death. It was not long before Edward found means to quarrel with David, king of Scotland, though he had married his ſiſter, and he was driven to France by Edward Baliol, who acted as Edward's tributary, king of Scotland and general, and did the ſame homage to Edward for Scotland, as his father had done to Edward I. Soon after, upon the death of Charles the Fair, king of France (without iſſue), who had ſucceeded by virtue of the Salic law, which, the French pretended, cut off all female ſucceſſion to that crown, Philip of Valois claimed it as being the next heir male by ſucceſſion; but he was oppoſed by Edward, as being the ſon of Iſabella, who was ſiſter to the three laſt-mentioned kings of France, and firſt in the female ſucceſſion. The former was preferred: but the caſe being doubtful, Edward purſued his claim, and invaded France with a powerful army.

On this occaſion, the vaſt difference between the feudal conſtitutions of France, which were then in full force, and the government of England, more favourable to public liberty, appeared. The French officers knew no ſubordination. They and their men were equally undiſciplined and diſobedient, though far more numerous than their enemies in the field. The Engliſh freemen on the other hand, having now vaſt property to fight for, which they could call their own, independent of a feudal law, knew its value, and had learnt to defend it by providing themſelves with proper armour, and ſubmitting to military exerciſes, and proper ſubordination in the field. The war, on the part of Edward, was therefore a continued ſcene of ſucceſs and victory. In 1340 he took the title of king of France, uſing it in all public acts, and quartered the arms of France with his own, adding this motto, *Dieu & mon droit*, "God and my right." At Creſſy, Auguſt 26th, 1346, above 100,000 French were defeated, chiefly by the valour of the prince of Wales, who was but ſixteen years of age (his father being no more than thirty-four) though the Engliſh did not exceed 30,000. The loſs of the French far exceeded the number of the Engliſh army, whoſe loſs conſiſted of no more than three knights and one eſquire, and about fifty private men. The battle of Poictiers was fought in 1356, between the prince of Wales and the French king John, but with great ſuperior advantages of numbers on the part of the French, who were totally defeated, and their king and his favourite ſon Philip taken priſoners. It is thought that the number of French killed in this battle was double that of all the Engliſh army; but the modeſty and politeneſs, with which the prince treated his royal priſoners, formed the brighteſt wreath in his garland.

Edward's glories were not confined to France. Having left his queen Philippa, daughter to the earl of Hainault, regent of England, ſhe had the good fortune to take priſoner David king of Scotland, who had ventured to invade England, about ſix weeks after the battle of Creſſy was fought, and remained a priſoner eleven years. Thus Edward had the glory to ſee two crowned heads his captives at London. Both kings were afterwards ranſomed; David for 100,000 marks, and John for three millions of gold crowns; but John returned to England, and died at the palace of the Savoy. After the treaty of Bretigni, into which Edward III. is ſaid to have been frightened by a dreadful ſtorm, his fortunes declined. He had reſigned his French dominions entirely to the prince of Wales, and he ſunk in the eſteem of his ſubjects at home, on account of his attachment to his miſtreſs, one Alice Pierce. The prince of Wales, commonly called the Black Prince *, from his wearing that armour, while he

* He was alſo the firſt in England that had the title of *Duke*, being created by his father Duke of Cornwall; and ever ſince, the eldeſt ſon of the king of England is by birth duke of Cornwall.

was making a glorious campaign in Spain, where he reinſtated Peter the Cruel on that throne, was ſeized with a conſumptive diſorder, which carried him off in the year 1372. His father did not long ſurvive him; for he died, diſpirited and obſcure, at Shene in Surry, in the year 1377, the 65th of his age, and 51ſt of his reign.

No prince ever underſtood the balance and intereſts of Europe better than Edward did, and he was one of the beſt and moſt illuſtrious kings that ſat on the Engliſh throne. Having ſet his heart on the conqueſt of France, he gratified the more readily his people in their demands for protection and ſecurity to their liberties and properties, but he thereby exhauſted his regal dominions; neither was his ſucceſſor, when he mounted the throne, ſo powerful a prince as he was in the beginning of his reign. He has the glory of inviting over and protecting fullers, dyers, weavers, and other artificers from Flanders, and of eſtabliſhing the woollen manufacture among the Engliſh, who, till his time, generally exported the unwrought commodity. The rate of living in his reign ſeems to have been much the ſame as in the preceding reign; and few of the Engliſh ſhips, even of war, exceeded forty or fifty tons. But notwithſtanding the vaſt increaſe of property in England, villanage ſtill continued in the royal, epiſcopal, and baronial manners. Hiſtorians are not agreed whether Edward made uſe of artillery in his firſt invaſion of France: but it certainly was well known before his death. The magnificent caſtle of Windſor was built by Edward III. and his method of conducting that work may ſerve as a ſpecimen of the condition of the people of that age. Inſteed of alluring workmen by contracts and wages, he aſſeſſed every county in England to ſend him ſo many maſons, tilers, and carpenters, as if he had been levying an army. Soldiers were enliſted only for a ſhort time: they lived idle all the reſt of the year, and commonly all the reſt of their lives; one ſucceſsful campaign, by pay and plunder, and the ranſom of priſoners, was ſuppoſed to be a ſmall fortune to a man; which was a great allurement to enter into the ſervice. The wages of a maſter carpenter was limited through the whole year to three pence a day, a common carpenter to two pence, money of that age.

Dr. John Wickliffe, a ſecular prieſt, educated at Oxford, began in the latter end of this reign to ſpread the doctrines of reformation, by his diſcourſes, ſermons, and writings; and he made many diſciples of all ranks and ſtations. He was a man of parts, learning, and piety; and has the honour of being the firſt perſon in Europe who publicly called in queſtion thoſe doctrines, which had generally paſſed for certain and undiſputed, during ſo many ages. The doctrines of Wickliffe, being derived from his ſearch into the ſcriptures, and into eccleſiaſtical antiquity, were nearly the ſame with thoſe propagated by the reformers in the ſixteenth century. But though the age ſeemed ſtrongly diſpoſed to receive them, affairs were not yet fully ripe for this great revolution, which was reſerved for a more free and enquiring period, that gave the finiſhing blow to Romiſh ſuperſtition in this and many other kingdoms of Europe. He had many friends in the univerſity of Oxford, and at court, and was powerfully protected againſt the evil deſigns of the pope and biſhops, by John of Gaunt duke of Lancaſter, one of the king's ſons, and other great men. His diſciples were diſtinguiſhed by the name of Wickliffites or Lollards.

Richard II. ſon of the Black Prince, was no more than eleven years of age when he mounted the throne. The Engliſh arms were then unſucceſsful both in France and in Scotland; but the doctrines of Wickliffe took root under the influence of the duke of Lancaſter, the king's uncle, and one

one of his guardians, and gave enlarged notions of liberty to the villains, and lower ranks of people. The truth is, agriculture was then in ſo flouriſhing a ſtate, that corn, and other victuals, were ſuffered to be tranſported, and the Engliſh had fallen upon a way of manufacturing, for exportation, their leather, horns, and other native commodities; and with regard to the woollen manufactures, they ſeem, from records, to have been exceeded by none in Europe. John of Gaunt's foreign connections with the crowns of Portugal and Spain were of prejudice to England; and ſo many men were employed in unſucceſsful wars, that the commons of England, like powder, receiving a ſpark of fire, all at once flamed out into rebellion, under the conduct of Ball, a prieſt, Wat Tyler, Jack Straw, and others the loweſt of the people. The conduct of theſe inſurgents was very violent, and in many reſpects extremely unjuſtifiable; but it cannot juſtly be denied, that the common people of England then laboured under many oppreſſions, particularly a *poll-tax*, and had abundant reaſon to be diſcontented with the government.

Richard was not then above ſixteen, but he acted with great ſpirit and wiſdom. He faced the ſtorm of the inſurgents, at the head of the Londoners, while Walworth the mayor, and Philpot an alderman, had the courage to put Tyler, the leader of the malcontents, to death, in the midſt of his adherents. Richard then aſſociated to himſelf a new ſet of favourites. His people and great lords again took up arms; and being headed by the duke of Glouceſter, the king's uncle, they forced Richard once more into terms; but being inſincere in all his compliances, he was upon the point of becoming more deſpotic than any king in England ever had been, when he loſt his crown and life by a ſudden cataſtrophe

A quarrel happened between the duke of Hereford, ſon to the duke of Lancaſter, and the duke of Norfolk; and Richard baniſhed them both, with particular marks of injuſtice to the former, who now became duke of Lancaſter by his father's death. Richard carrying over a great army to quell a rebellion in Ireland, a ſtrong party formed in England, the natural reſult of Richard's tyranny, who offered the duke of Lancaſter the crown. He landed from France at Ravenſpur in Yorkſhire, and was ſoon at the head of 60,000 men, all of them Engliſh. Richard hurried back to England, where, his troops refuſing to fight, and his ſubjects, whom he had affected to deſpiſe, generally deſerting him, he was made priſoner with no more than twenty attendants; and being carried to London, he was depoſed in full parliament, upon a formal charge of tyranny and miſconduct; and ſoon after he is ſuppoſed to have been ſtarved to death in priſon, in the year 1399, the 34th of his age, and the 23d of his reign. He had no iſſue by either of his two marriages.

Though the nobility of England were poſſeſſed of great power at the time of this revolution, yet we do not find that it abated the influence of the commons. They had the courage to remonſtrate boldly in parliament againſt the uſury, which was but too much practiſed in England, and other abuſes of both clergy and laity; and the deſtruction of the feudal powers ſoon followed.

Henry the Fourth *, ſon of John of Gaunt duke of Lancaſter, fourth

* The throne being now vacant, the duke of Lancaſter ſtepped forth, and having croſſed himſelf on his forehead and on his breaſt, and called upon the name of Chriſt, he pronounced theſe words, which I ſhall give in the original language, becauſe of their ſingularity.

* *In the name of Fadher, Son, and Holy Ghoſt, I Henry of Lancaſter, challenge this reume of Yngland, and the croun, with all the membris, and the appurtenaunces; als I that am deſcendit by right line of the blode* (meaning a claim in right of his mother) *coming from the gude king Henry thirde and throge that right that God of his grace hath ſent me, with helpe of kyn, and of my frendes, to recover it: the which reume was in poynt to be undone, by defaut of gouernance, and ondoying of the gude lawes.*

ſon of Edward III. being ſettled on the throne of England, in prejudice to the elder branches of Edward III.'s family, the great nobility were in hopes that this glaring defect in his title would render him dependent upon them. At firſt ſome conſpiracies were formed againſt him among his great men, as the dukes of Surry and Exeter, the earls of Glouceſter and Saliſbury, and the archbiſhop of York; but he cruſhed them by his activity and ſteadineſs, and laid a plan for reducing their overgrown power. This was underſtood by the Percy family, the greateſt in the north of England, who complained of Henry having deprived them of ſome Scotch priſoners, whom they had taken in battle; and the dangerous rebellion broke out under the old earl of Northumberland, and his ſon the famous Henry Percy, ſurnamed Hotſpur; but it ended in the defeat of the rebels, chiefly by the valour of the prince of Wales. With equal good fortune, Henry ſuppreſſed the inſurrection of the Welch, under Owen Glendower; and by his prudent conceſſions to his parliament, to the commons particularly, he at laſt conquered all oppoſition, while, to ſalve the defect of his title, the parliament entailed the crown upon him, and the heirs male of his body lawfully begotten, thereby ſhutting out all female ſucceſſion. The young duke of Rothſay, heir to the crown of Scotland (afterwards James I. of that kingdom), falling a priſoner into Henry's hands about this time, was of infinite ſervice to his government; and, before his death, which happened in 1413, in the 46th year of his age, and 13th of his reign, he had the ſatisfaction to ſee his ſon and ſucceſſor, the prince of Wales, diſengage himſelf from many youthful follies, which till then had diſgraced his conduct.

The Engliſh marine was now ſo greatly increaſed, that we find an Engliſh veſſel of 200 tons in the Baltic, and many other ſhips of equal burden carrying on an immenſe trade all over Europe, but with the Hanſe towns in particular. With regard to public liberty, Henry IV. as I have already hinted, was the firſt prince who gave the different orders in parliament, eſpecially that of the commons, their due weight. It is however a little ſurpriſing, that learning was at this time in a much lower ſtate in England, and all over Europe, than it had been 200 years before. Biſhops, when teſtifying ſynodal acts, were often forced to do it by proxy, in the following terms, viz. "As I cannot read myſelf, N. N. hath ſubſcribed for me; or, As my lord biſhop cannot write himſelf, at his requeſt, I have ſubſcribed." By the influence of the court, and the intrigues of the clergy, an act was obtained in the ſeſſions of parliament 1401, for the burning of hereties, occaſioned by the great increaſe of the Wickliffites or Lollards; and immediately after, one Sawtre, pariſh-prieſt of St. Oſithe in London, was burnt alive by the king's writ, directed to the mayor and ſheriffs of London.

The balance of trade with foreign parts was againſt England at the acceſſion of Henry V. in 1413, ſo greatly had luxury increaſed. The Lollards, or the followers of Wickliffe, were exceſſively numerous; and ſir John Oldcaſtle and lord Cobham having joined them, it was pretended that he had agreed to put himſelf at their head, with a deſign to overturn the government; but this appears to have been a groundleſs accuſation, from a bloody zeal of the clergy, though he was put to death in conſequence of it. His only real crime ſeems to have been the ſpirit with which he oppoſed the ſuperſtition of the age; and he was the firſt of the nobility who ſuffered on account of religion. Henry was about this time engaged in a conteſt with France, which he had many incitements for invading. He demanded a reſtitution of Normandy, and other provinces that had been ravithed from England in the preceding reigns; alſo the payment of certain arrears due for king John's ranſom ſince the

reign of Edward III. and availing himself of the distracted state of that kingdom by the Orleans and Burgundy factions, he invaded it, where he first took Harfleur, and then defeated the French in the battle of Agincourt, which equalled those of Cressy and Poitiers in glory to the English, but exceeded them in its consequences, on account of the vast number of French princes of the blood, and other great noblemen, who were there killed. Henry, who was as great a politician as a warrior, made such alliances, and divided the French among themselves so effectually, that he forced the queen of France, whose husband, Charles VI. was a lunatic, to agree to his marrying her daughter, the princess Catharine, to disinherit the dauphin, and to declare Henry regent of France during her husband's life, and him and his issue successors to the French monarchy, which must at this time have been exterminated, had not the Scots (though their king still continued Henry's captive) furnished the dauphin with vast supplies, and preserved the French crown for his head. Henry however made a triumphal entry into Paris, where the dauphin was proscribed; and after receiving the fealty of the French nobility, he returned to England to levy a force that might crush the dauphin and his Scotch auxiliaries. He probably would have been successful, had he not died of a pleuretic disorder, 1442, the 34th year of his age, and the 10th of his reign.

Henry V.'s vast successes in France revived the trade of England, and at the same time increased and established the privileges and liberties of the English commonalty. As he died when he was only thirty-four years of age, it is hard to say, if he had lived, whether he might not have given the law to all the continent of Europe, which was then greatly distracted by the divisions among its princes; but whether this would have been of service or prejudice to the growing liberties of his English subjects, we cannot determine.

By an authentic and exact account of the ordinary revenues of the crown during this reign, it appears that they amounted only to 55,714l. a year, which is nearly the same with the revenues in Henry III.'s time, and the kings of England had neither become much richer nor poorer in the course of 200 years. The ordinary expenses of the government amounted to 52,507l. so that the king had of surplus only 3,207l. for the support of his household, for his wardrobe, for the expenses of embassies, and other articles. This sum was not nearly sufficient even in time of peace: and to carry on his wars, this great conqueror was reduced to many miserable shifts; he borrowed from all quarters, he pawned his jewels, and sometimes the crown itself; he ran in arrears to his army; and he was often obliged to stop in the midst of his career of victory, and to grant a truce to the enemy. I mention these particulars that the reader may judge of the simplicity and temperance of our predecessors three centuries ago, when the expenses of the greatest king in Europe were scarcely equal to the pension of a superannuated courtier of the present age.

It required a prince equally able with Henry IV. and V. to confirm the title of the Lancaster house to the throne of England. Henry VI. surnamed of Windsor, was no more than nine months old, when, in consequence of the treaty of Troyes, concluded by his father with the French court, he was proclaimed king of France as well as England. He was under the tuition of his two uncles, the dukes of Bedford and Gloucester, both of them princes of great accomplishments, virtues, and courage, but unable to preserve their brother's conquests. Upon the death of Charles VI. the affections of the French for his family revived in the person of his son and successor Charles VII. The duke of Bedford,

who was regent of France, performed many glorious actions, and at laſt laid ſiege to Orleans, which, if taken, would have completed the conqueſt of France. The ſiege was raiſed by the valour and good conduct of the Maid of Orleans, a phænomenon hardly to be paralleled in hiſtory, ſhe being born of the loweſt extraction, and bred a cow-keeper, and ſome time a helper in ſtables in public inns. She muſt notwithſtanding have poſſeſſed an amazing fund of ſagacity as well as valour. After an unparalleled train of heroic actions, and placing the crown upon her ſovereign's head, ſhe was taken priſoner by the Engliſh in making a ſally during the ſiege of Compiegne, who burnt her alive for a witch at Rouen, May 30, 1431.

The death of the duke of Bedford, and the agreement of the duke of Burgundy, the great ally of the Engliſh, with Charles VII. contributed to the entire ruin of the Engliſh intereſt in France, and the loſs of all their fine provinces in that kingdom, notwithſtanding the amazing courage of Talbot the firſt earl of Shrewſbury, and their other officers. The capital misfortune of England, at this time, was its diſunion at home. The duke of Glouceſter loſt his authority in the government; and the king married Margaret of Anjou, daughter to the needy king of Sicily; a woman of a high ſpirit, but an implacable diſpoſition; while the cardinal of Wincheſter, who was the richeſt ſubject in England, if not in Europe, preſided at the head of the treaſury, and by his avarice ruined the intereſt of England, both at home and abroad. Next to the cardinal, the duke of York, who was lord lieutenant of Ireland, was the moſt powerful ſubject in England. He was deſcended by the mother's ſide from Lionel, an elder ſon of Edward III. and prior in claim to the reigning king who was deſcended from John of Gaunt, Edward's youngeſt ſon; and he affected to keep up the diſtinction of a white roſe, that of the houſe of Lancaſter being red. It is certain that he paid no regard to the parliamentary entail of the crown upon the reigning family: and he loſt no opportunity of forming a party to aſſert his right; but acted at firſt with a moſt profound diſſimulation. The duke of Suffolk was a favourite of the queen, who was a profeſſed enemy to the duke of York; but being impeached in parliament, he was baniſhed for five years, and had his head ſtruck off on board a ſhip, by a common ſailor. This was followed by an inſurrection of 20,000 Kentiſh-men, headed by one Jack Cade, a man of low condition, who ſent to the court a liſt of grievances; but he was defeated by the valour of the citizens of London, and the queen ſeemed to be perfectly ſecure againſt the duke of York. The inglorious management of the Engliſh affairs in France befriended him, and upon his arrival in England from Ireland, he found a ſtrong party of the nobility his friends; but being conſidered as the fomenter of Cade's rebellion, he profeſſed the moſt profound reverence to Henry.

The perſons in high power and reputation in England, next to the duke of York, were the earl of Saliſbury, and his ſon the earl of Warwick. The latter had the greateſt land eſtate of any ſubject in England, and his vaſt abilities, joined to ſome virtues, rendered him equally popular. Both father and ſon were ſecretly on the ſide of York; and during a fit of illneſs of the king, that duke was made protector of the realm. Both ſides now prepared for arms, and the king recovering, the queen with wonderful activity aſſembled an army; but the royaliſts were defeated in the firſt battle of St. Alban's, and the king himſelf was taken priſoner. The duke of York was once more declared protector of the kingdom, but it was not long before the queen reſumed all her influence

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in the government, and the king, though his weakneſs became every day more and more viſible, recovered all his authority.

The duke of York upon this threw off the maſk, and in 1459, he openly claimed the crown, and the queen was again defeated by the earl of Warwick, who was now called the king-maker. A parliament upon this being aſſembled, it was enacted, that Henry ſhould poſſeſs the throne for life, but that the duke of York ſhould ſucceed him, to the excluſion of all Henry's iſſue. All, excepting the magnanimous queen, agreed to this compromiſe. She retreated northwards, and the king being ſtill a priſoner, ſhe pleaded his cauſe ſo well, that, aſſembling a freſh army, ſhe fought the battle of Wakefield, where the duke of York was defeated and ſlain, in 1460.

It is pretty extraordinary, that, though the duke of York and his party openly aſſerted his claim to the crown, they ſtill profeſſed allegiance to Henry; but the duke of York's ſon, afterwards Edward IV. prepared to revenge his father's death, and obtained ſeveral victories over the royaliſts. The queen, however, advanced towards London, and defeating the earl of Warwick, in the ſecond battle of St Alban's, ſhe delivered her huſband; but the diſorders committed by her northern troops diſguſted the Londoners ſo much, that ſhe durſt not enter London, where the duke of York was received on the 28th of February, 1461, while the queen and her huſband were obliged to retreat northwards. She ſoon raiſed another army, and fought the battle of Towton, the moſt bloody perhaps that ever happened in any civil war. After prodigies of valour had been performed on both ſides, the victory remained with young king Edward, and near 40,000 men lay dead on the field of battle. Margaret and her huſband were once more obliged to fly to Scotland, where they met with generous protection.

It may be proper to obſerve, that this civil war was carried on with greater animoſity than any perhaps ever known. Margaret was as blood-thirſty as her opponents, and when priſoners on either ſide were made, their deaths, eſpecially if they were of any rank, were deferred only for a few hours.

Margaret, by the conceſſions ſhe made to the Scots, ſoon raiſed a freſh army there, and in the north of England, but met with defeat upon defeat, till at laſt her huſband, the unfortunate Henry, was carried priſoner to London.

The duke of York, now Edward IV. being crowned on the 29th of June, fell in love with, and privately married Elizabeth, the widow of ſir John Gray, though he had ſome time before ſent the earl of Warwick to demand the king of France's ſiſter in marriage, in which embaſſy he was ſucceſsful, and nothing remained but the bringing over the princeſs into England. When the ſecret of Edward's marriage broke out, the haughty earl deeming himſelf affronted, returned to England inflamed with rage and indignation; and from being Edward's beſt friend, became his moſt formidable enemy; and gaining over the duke of Clarence, Edward was made priſoner, but eſcaping from his confinement, the earl of Warwick, and the French king, Lewis XI. declared for the reſtoration of Henry, who was replaced on the throne, and Edward narrowly eſcaped to Holland. Returning from thence, he advanced to London, under pretence of claiming his dukedom of York; but being received into the capital, he reſumed the exerciſe of royal authority, made king Henry once more his priſoner, and defeated and killed Warwick, in the battle of Barnet. A few days after he defeated a freſh army of Lancaſtrians, and made queen Margaret priſoner, together with her ſon

prince Edward, whom Edward's brother, the duke of Glouceſter, murdered in cold blood, as he is ſaid (but with no great ſhow of probability) to have done his father Henry VI. then a priſoner in the Tower of London, a few days after, in the year 1471.

Edward, partly to amuſe the public, and partly to ſupply the vaſt expenſes of his court, pretended ſometimes to quarrel, and ſometimes to treat with France: but his irregularities brought him to his death (1483) in the twenty-third year of his reign, and forty-ſecond of his age.

Notwithſtanding the turbulence of the times, the trade and manufactures of England, particularly the woollen, increaſed during the reigns of Henry VI. and Edward IV. So early as 1440, a navigation act was thought of by the Engliſh, as the only means to preſerve to themſelves the benefit of being the ſole carriers of their own merchandiſe; but foreign influence prevented Henry's paſſing the bill for that purpoſe. The invention of printing, which is generally ſuppoſed to have been imported into England by William Caxton, and which received ſome countenance from Edward, is the chief glory of his reign; but learning in general was then in a poor ſtate in England. The lord Tiptoft was its great patron, and ſeems to have been the firſt Engliſh nobleman who cultivated what are now called the belles lettres. The books printed by Caxton are moſtly re-tranſlations, or compilations from the French or Monkiſh Latin; but it muſt be acknowledged, at the ſame time, that literature, after this period, made a more rapid and general progreſs among the Engliſh, than it did in any other European nation. The famous Littleton, judge of the Common Pleas, and Forteſcue, chancellor of England, flouriſhed at this period.

Edward IV. left two ſons by his queen, who had exerciſed her power with no great prudence, by having nobilitated many of her obſcure relations. Her eldeſt ſon, Edward V. was about thirteen; and his uncle, the duke of Glouceſter, taking advantage of the queen's unpopularity among the great men, found means to baſtardiſe her iſſue, by act of parliament, under the ſcandalous pretext of a pre-contract between their father and another lady. The duke, at the ſame time, was declared guardian of the kingdom, and at laſt accepted of the crown, which was offered him by the Londoners; having firſt put to death all the nobility and great men, whom he thought to be well affected to the late king's family. Whether the king and his brother were murdered in the Tower, by his direction, is doubtful. The moſt probable opinion is, that they were clandeſtinely ſent abroad by his orders, and that the elder died, but that the younger ſurvived, and was the ſame who was well known by the name of Perkin Warbeck. Be this as it will, the Engliſh were prepoſſeſſed ſo ſtrongly againſt Richard, as being the murderer of his nephews, that the earl of Richmond, who ſtill remained in France, carried on a ſecret correſpondence with the remains of Edward IV.'s friends; and by offering to marry his eldeſt daughter, he was encouraged to invade England at the head of about 2000 foreign troops; but they were ſoon joined by 7000 Engliſh and Welch. A battle between him and Richard, who was at the head of 15,000 men, enſued at Boſworth-field, in which Richard, after diſplaying moſt aſtoniſhing acts of perſonal valour, was killed, having been firſt abandoned by a main diviſion of his army, under lord Stanley and his brother, in the year 1485.

Though the ſame act of baſtardy affected the daughters, as well as the ſons of the late king, yet no diſputes were raiſed upon the legitimacy of the princeſs Elizabeth, eldeſt daughter to Edward IV. and who, as had been before concerted, married Henry of Lancaſter, earl of Richmond, thereby uniting both houſes; which happily put an end to the long and bloody wars

between

between the contending houſes of York and Lancaſter. Henry, however, relied his right upon conqueſt, and ſeemed to pay little regard to the advantages of his marriage. He was the firſt who inſtituted that guard called *Yeomen*, which ſtill ſubſiſts; and in imitation of his predeceſſor, he gave an irrecoverable blow to the dangerous privileges aſſumed by the barons, in aboliſhing liveries and retainers, by which every malefactor could ſhelter himſelf from the law, on aſſuming a nobleman's livery, and attending his perſon. The deſpotic court of ſtar-chamber owed its original to Henry; but, at the ſame time, it muſt be acknowledged, that he paſſed many acts, eſpecially for trade and navigation, that were highly for the benefit of his ſubjects; and as a finiſhing ſtroke to the feudal tenures, an act paſſed, by which the barons and gentlemen of landed intereſt were at liberty to ſell and mortgage their lands, without fines or licences for the alienation.

This, if we regard its conſequences, is perhaps the moſt important act that ever paſſed in an Engliſh parliament, though its tendency ſeems only to have been known to the politic king. Luxury, by the increaſe of trade, and the diſcovery of America, had broken with irreſiſtible force into England; and monied property being chiefly in the hands of the commons, the eſtates of the barons became theirs, but without any of their dangerous privileges; and thus the baronial powers were ſoon extinguiſhed in England.

Henry, after encountering and ſurmounting many difficulties both in France and Ireland, was attacked in the poſſeſſion of his throne by a young man, one Perkin Warbeck, who pretended to be the duke of York, ſecond ſon to Edward IV. and was acknowledged as ſuch by the ducheſs of Burgundy, Edward's ſiſter. We ſhall not follow the adventures of this young man, which were various and uncommon; but it is certain that many of the Engliſh, with the courts of France and Scotland, believed him to be what he pretended. Henry endeavoured to prove the death of Edward V. and his brother, but never did it to the public ſatisfaction; and though James IV. of Scotland diſmiſſed Perkin out of his dominions, being engaged in a treaty of marriage with Henry's eldeſt daughter, yet by the kind manner in which he entertained and diſmiſſed him, it is plain that he believed him to be the real duke of York, eſpecially as he refuſed to deliver up his perſon, which he might have done with honour, had he thought him an impoſtor. Perkin, after various unfortunate adventures, fell into Henry's hands, and was ſhut up in the Tower of London, from whence he endeavoured to eſcape along with the innocent earl of Warwick, for which Perkin was hanged, and the earl beheaded. In 1499, Henry's eldeſt ſon, Arthur prince of Wales, was married to the princeſs Catharine of Arragon, daughter to the king and queen of Spain; and he dying ſoon after, ſuch was Henry's reluctance to refund her great dowry, 200,000 crowns of gold, that he conſented to her being married again to his ſecond ſon, then prince of Wales, on pretence that the firſt match had not been conſummated. Soon after, Henry's eldeſt daughter, the princeſs Margaret, was ſent with a moſt magnificent train to Scotland, where ſhe was married to James IV. Henry, at the time of his death, which happened in 1509, the 52d year of his age, and 24th of his reign, was poſſeſſed of 1,800,000l. ſterling, which is equivalent to five millions at preſent; ſo that he may be ſuppoſed to have been maſter of more ready money than all the kings in Europe beſides poſſeſſed, the mines of Peru and Mexico being then only beginning to be worked. He was immoderately fond of repleniſhing his coffers,

and often tricked his parliament to grant him ſubſidies for foreign alliances which he intended not to purſue.

I have already mentioned the vaſt alteration which happened in the conſtitution of England during Henry VII.'s reign. His exceſſive love of money, and his avarice, was the probable reaſon why he did not become maſter of the Weſt Indies, he having the firſt offer of the diſcovery from Columbus, whoſe propoſals being rejected by Henry, that great man applied to the court of Spain, and he ſet out upon the diſcovery of a new world in the year 1492, which he effected after a paſſage of thirty-three days, and took poſſeſſion of the country in the name of the king and queen of Spain. Henry, however, made ſome amends by encouraging Cabot a Venetian, who diſcovered the main land of North America in 1498; and we may obſerve to the praiſe of this king, that ſometimes, in order to promote commerce, he lent to merchants ſums of money without intereſt, when he knew that their ſtock was not ſufficient for thoſe enterpriſes which they had in view. From the proportional prices of living, produced by Madox, Fleetwood, and other writers, agriculture and breeding of cattle muſt have been prodigiouſly advanced before Henry's death. An inſtance of this is given in the caſe of lady Anne, ſiſter to Henry's queen, who had an allowance of 20s. per week for her exhibition, ſuſtentation, and convenient diet of meat and drink; alſo for two gentlewomen, one woman child, one gentleman, one yeoman, and three grooms (in all eight perſons), 51l. 11s. 8d. per annum, for their wages, diet, and cloathing; and for the maintenance of ſeven horſes, 16l. 9s. 4d. *i. e.* for each horſe, 2l. 7s. 0d. $\frac{1}{2}$ yearly, money being ſtill $11\frac{1}{2}$ times as weighty as our modern ſilver coin. Wheat was that day no more than 3s. 4d. a quarter, which anſwers to 5s. of our money, conſequently it was about ſeven times as cheap as at preſent: ſo that, had all other neceſſaries been equally cheap, ſhe could have lived as well as on 1260l. 10s. 6d. of our modern money, or ten times as cheap as at preſent.

The fine arts were as far advanced in England at the acceſſion of Henry VIII. 1509, as in any European country, if we except Italy; and perhaps no prince ever entered with greater advantages than he did on the exerciſe of royalty. Young, vigorous, and rich, without any rival, he held the balance of power in Europe; but it is certain that he neglected thoſe advantages in commerce with which his father became too lately acquainted. Imagining he could not ſtand in need of a ſupply, he did not improve Cabot's diſcoveries; and he ſuffered the Eaſt and Weſt Indies to be engroſſed by Portugal and Spain. His vanity engaged him too much in the affairs of the continent, and his flatterers encouraged him to make preparations for the conqueſt of all France. Theſe projects, and his eſtabliſhing what is properly called a *naval royal*, for the permanent defence of the nation (a moſt excellent meaſure), led him into incredible expenſes. He became a candidate for the German empire, during its vacancy; but ſoon reſigned his pretenſions to Francis I. of France, and Charles of Auſtria, king of Spain, who was elected in 1519. Henry's conduct, in the long and bloody wars between thoſe princes, was directed by Wolſey's views upon the popedom, which he hoped to gain by the intereſt of Charles; but finding himſelf twice deceived, he perſuaded his maſter to declare himſelf for Francis, who had been taken priſoner at the battle of Pavia. Henry, however, continued to be the dupe of all parties, and to pay great part of their expenſes, till at laſt he was forced to lay vaſt burthens upon his ſubjects.

Henry continued all this time the great enemy of the reformation, and

and the champion of the popes and the Romiſh church. He wrote a book againſt Luther, "of the *Seven Sacraments*," about the year 1521, for which the pope gave him the title of *Defender of the Faith*, which his ſucceſſors retain to this day; but about the year 1527, he began to have ſome ſcruples with regard to the validity of his marriage with his brother's widow. I ſhall not ſay, how far on this occaſion he might be influenced by ſcruples of his conſcience, or averſion to the queen, or the charms of the famous Anne Boleyn, maid of honour to the queen, whom he married, before he had obtained from Rome the proper bulls of divorce from the pope. The difficulties he met with in this proceſs, ruined Wolſey, who died heart-broken, after being ſtript of his immenſe power and poſſeſſions.

A perplexing, though nice conjuncture of affairs, it is well known, induced Henry at laſt to throw of all relation to, or dependence upon, the church of Rome, and to bring about a reformation; in which, however, many of the Romiſh errors and ſuperſtitions were retained. Henry never could have effected this mighty meaſure, had it not been for his deſpotic diſpoſition, which broke out on every occaſion. Upon a ſlight ſuſpicion of his queen's inconſtancy, and after a ſham trial, he cut off her head in the Tower, and put to death ſome of her neareſt relations; and in many reſpects he acted in the moſt arbitrary manner, his wiſhes, however unreaſonable, being too readily complied with, in conſequence of the ſhameful ſervility of his parliaments. The diſſolution of the religious houſes, and the immenſe wealth that came to Henry, by ſeizing all the eccleſiaſtical property in his kingdom, enabled him to give full ſcope to his ſanguinary diſpoſition; ſo that the beſt and moſt innocent blood of England was ſhed on ſcaffolds, and ſeldom any long time paſſed without being marked with ſome illuſtrious victim of his tyranny.—Among others, was the aged counteſs of Saliſbury, deſcended immediately from Edward IV. and mother to cardinal Pole; the marquis of Exeter, the lord Montague, and others of the blood royal, for holding a correſpondence with that cardinal.

His third wife was Jane Seymour, daughter to a gentleman of fortune and family; but ſhe died in bringing Edward VI. into the world. His fourth wife was Anne, ſiſter to the duke of Cleves. He diſliked her ſo much, that he ſcarcely bedded with her, and obtaining a divorce, he ſuffered her to reſide in England on a penſion of 30,000l. a year. His fifth wife was Catharine Howard, niece to the duke of Norfolk, whoſe head he cut off for ante-nuptial incontinency. His laſt wife was queen Catharine Par, in whoſe poſſeſſion he died, after ſhe had narrowly eſcaped being brought to the ſtake, for her religious opinions, which favoured the reformation. Henry's cruelty increaſed with his years, and was now exerciſed promiſcuouſly on Proteſtants and Catholics. He put the brave earl of Surry to death without a crime being proved againſt him, and his father, the duke of Norfolk, muſt have ſuffered the next day, had he not been ſaved by Henry's own death, 1547, in the 56th year of his age, and the 38th of his reign.

The ſtate of England, during the reign of Henry VIII. is, by the help of printing, too well known to be enlarged upon here. His attention to the naval ſecurity of England is highly commendable; and it is certain that he employed the unjuſt and arbitrary power he frequently aſſumed, in many reſpects for the glory and intereſt of his ſubjects. Without inquiring into his religious motives, it muſt be candidly confeſſed, that, had the reformation gone through all the forms preſcribed by the laws, and the courts of juſtice, it probably never could have taken

place, or at leaſt not for many years: and whatever Henry's perſonal crimes or failings might have been, the partition he made of the church's property among his courtiers and favourites, and thereby reſcuing it from dead hands, undoubtedly promoted the preſent greatneſs of England. With regard to learning and the arts, Henry was a generous encourager of both. He gave a penſion to Eraſmus, which is another name for learning itſelf. He brought to England, encouraged, and protected Hans Holbein, that excellent painter and architect; and in his reign, noblemen's houſes began to have the air of Italian magnificence and regularity. He was a conſtant and generous friend to Cranmer: and though he was, upon the whole, rather whimſical than ſettled in his own principles of religion, he advanced and encouraged many who became afterwards the inſtruments of a more pure reformation.

In this reign the Bible was ordered to be printed in Engliſh. Wales was united and incorporated with England. Ireland was created into a kingdom, and Henry took the title of king inſtead of lord of Ireland.

Edward VI. was but nine years of age at the time of his father's death; and after ſome diſputes were over, the regency was ſettled in the perſon of his uncle the earl of Hertford, afterwards the protector, and duke of Somerſet, a declared friend and patron of the reformation, and a bitter enemy to the ſee of Rome.

The reader is to obſerve in general, that the reformation was not effected without many public diſturbances. The common people, during the reigns of Henry and Edward, being deprived of the laſt relief they had from abbeys and religious houſes, and being ejected from their ſmall corn-growing farms, had often taken arms, but had been as often ſuppreſſed by the government; and ſeveral of theſe inſurrections were cruſhed in this reign.

The reformation, however, went on rapidly, through the zeal of Cranmer, and others, ſome of them foreign divines. In ſome caſes, particularly with regard to the princeſs Mary, they loſt ſight of that moderation which the reformers had before ſo ſtrongly recommended; and ſome cruel ſanguinary executions, on account of religion, took place. Edward's youth excuſes him from blame; and his charitable endowments, as Bridewell, and St. Thomas's hoſpitals, and alſo ſeveral ſchools which ſtill exiſt and flouriſh, ſhow the goodneſs of his heart. He died of a deep conſumption in 1553, in the 16th year of his age, and the 7th of his reign.

Edward, on his death-bed, from his zeal for religion, had made a very unconſtitutional will; for he ſet aſide his ſiſter Mary from the ſucceſſion, which was claimed by lady Jane Grey, daughter to the ducheſs of Suffolk, younger ſiſter to Henry VIII. This lady, though ſhe had ſcarcely reached her 17th year, was a prodigy of learning and virtue; but the bulk of the Engliſh nation recogniſed the claim of the princeſs Mary, who cut off lady Jane's head, and that of her huſband lord Guildford Dudley, ſon to the duke of Northumberland, who alſo ſuffered in the ſame manner.

Mary being thus ſettled on the throne, ſuppreſſed an inſurrection under Wyat, and proceeded like a female fury to re-eſtabliſh popery, which ſhe did all over England. She recalled cardinal Pole from baniſhment, made him inſtrumental in her cruelties, and lighted up the flames of perſecution, in which archbiſhop Cranmer, the biſhops Ridley, Hooper, and Latimer, and many other illuſtrious confeſſors of the Engliſh reformed church, were conſumed; not to mention a vaſt number of other ſacrifices of both ſexes, and all ranks, that ſuffered through every quarter of the kingdom. Bonner,

ner, biſhop of London, and Gardiner, biſhop of Wincheſter, were the chief executioners of her bloody mandates; and had ſhe lived, ſhe would have endeavoured to exterminate all her Proteſtant ſubjects.

Mary now married Philip II. of Spain, who, like herſelf, was an unfeeling bigot to popery; and the chief praiſe of her reign is, that by the marriage articles, proviſion was made for the independency of the Engliſh crown. By the aſſiſtance of troops, which ſhe furniſhed to her huſband, he gained the important battle of St. Quintin; but that victory was ſo ill improved, that the French, under the duke of Guiſe, ſoon after took Calais, the only place then remaining to the Engliſh in France, and which had been held ever ſince the reign of Edward III. This loſs, which was chiefly owing to cardinal Pole's ſecret connections with the French court, is ſaid to have broken Mary's heart, who died in 1558, in the 42d year of her life, and 6th of her reign. "In the heat of her perſecuting flames (ſays a contemporary writer of credit) were burnt to aſhes, one archbiſhop, 4 biſhops, 21 divines, 8 gentlemen, 84 artificers, and 100 huſbandmen, ſervants, and labourers, 26 wives, 20 widows, 9 virgins, 2 boys, and 2 infants; one of them whipped to death by Bonner, and the other, ſpringing out of the mother's womb from the ſtake as ſhe burned, thrown again into the fire." Several alſo died in priſon, and many were otherwiſe cruelly treated.

Elizabeth, daughter to Henry VIII. by Anne Boleyn, mounted the throne under the moſt diſcouraging circumſtances, both at home and abroad. Popery was the eſtabliſhed religion of England; her title to the crown, on account of the circumſtances attending her mother's marriage and death, was diſputed by Mary queen of Scots, grandchild to Henry VII.'s eldeſt daughter, and wife to the dauphin of France; and the only ally ſhe had on the continent was Philip king of Spain, who was the life and ſoul of the popiſh cauſe, both abroad and in England. Elizabeth was no more than 25 years of age at the time of her inauguration; but her ſufferings under her bigoted ſiſter, joined to the ſuperiority of her genius, had taught her caution and policy, and ſhe ſoon conquered all difficulties.

In matters of religion ſhe ſucceeded with ſurpriſing facility; for in her firſt parliament in 1559, the laws eſtabliſhing popery were repealed, her ſupremacy was reſtored, and an act of uniformity paſſed ſoon after. And it is obſerved, that of 9400 beneficed clergymen in England, only about 120 refuſed to comply with the reformation. With regard to her title, ſhe took advantage of the divided ſtate of Scotland, and formed a party there, by which Mary, now become the widow of Francis II. of France, was obliged to renounce, or rather to ſuſpend her claim. Elizabeth, not contented with this, ſent troops and money, which ſupported the Scotch malcontents, till Mary's unhappy marriage with lord Darnley, and then with Bothwell, the ſuppoſed murderer of the former, and her other miſconduct and misfortunes, drove her to take refuge in Elizabeth's dominions, where ſhe had often been promiſed a ſafe and honoural ◆ aſylum. It is well known how unfaithful Elizabeth was to this profeſſion of friendſhip, and that ſhe detained the unhappy priſoner 18 years in England, then brought her to a ſham trial, pretending that Mary aimed at the crown, and without ſufficient proof of her guilt, cut off her head; an action which greatly tarniſhed the glories of her reign.

The ſame Philip who had been the huſband of her late ſiſter, upon Elizabeth's acceſſion to the throne, offered to marry her: but ſhe dexterouſly avoided his addreſſes; and by a train of ſkilful negotiations between her court and that of France, ſhe kept the balance of Europe ſo undetermined, that ſhe had leiſure to unite her people at home, and to eſtabliſh

eſtabliſh an excellent internal policy in her dominions. She ſupported the proteſtants of France, againſt their perſecuting princes and the papiſts; and gave the dukes of Anjou and Alençon, brothers of the French king, the ſtrongeſt aſſurances that one or other of them ſhould be her huſband; by which ſhe kept that court, who dreaded Spain, at the ſame time in ſo good humour with her government, that it ſhowed no reſentment when ſhe cut off queen Mary's head.

When Philip was no longer to be impoſed upon by Elizabeth's arts, which had amuſed and baffled him in every quarter, it is well known that he made uſe of the immenſe ſums he drew from Peru and Mexico, in equipping the moſt formidable armament that perhaps ever had been put to ſea, and a numerous army of veterans, under the prince of Parma, the beſt captain of that age; and that he procured a papal bull for abſolving Elizabeth's ſubjects from their allegiance. The largeneſs of the Spaniſh ſhips proved diſadvantageous to them on the ſeas where they engaged; the lord admiral Howard, and the brave ſea officers under him, engaged, beat, and chaſed the Spaniſh fleet for ſeveral days; and the ſeas and tempeſts finiſhed the deſtruction which the Engliſh arms had begun, and few of the Spaniſh ſhips recovered their ports. Next to the admiral, lord Howard of Effingham, ſir Francis Drake, captain Hawkins, and captain Frobiſher, diſtinguiſhed themſelves againſt this formidable invaſion, in which the Spaniards are ſaid to have loſt 81 ſhips of war, large and ſmall, and 13,500 men.

Elizabeth had for ſome time ſupported the revolt of the Hollanders from Philip, and had ſent them her favourite, the earl of Leiceſter, who acted as her viceroy and general, in the Low Countries. Though Leiceſter behaved ill, yet her meaſures were ſo wiſe, that the Dutch eſtabliſhed their independency upon Spain; and then ſhe ſent forth her fleets under Drake, Raleigh, the earl of Cumberland, and other gallant naval officers, into the Eaſt and Weſt Indies, from whence they brought prodigious treaſures taken from the Spaniards, into England.

Elizabeth in her old age grew diſtruſtful, peeviſh, and jealous. Though ſhe undoubtedly loved the earl of Eſſex, ſhe teaſed him by her capriciouſneſs into the madneſs of taking arms, and then cut off his head. She complained that ſhe had been betrayed into this ſanguinary meaſure, and this occaſioned a ſinking of her ſpirits, which brought her to her grave in 1603, the ſeventieth year of her age, and 45th of her reign, having previouſly named her kinſman James VI. king of Scotland, and ſon to Mary, for her ſucceſſor.

The above form the great lines of Elizabeth's reign; and from them may be traced either immediately or remotely, every act of her government. She ſupported the proteſtants in Germany againſt the houſe of Auſtria, of which Philip king of Spain, was the head. She cruſhed the papiſts in her own dominions for the ſame reaſon, and made a farther reformation in the church of England, in which ſtate it has remained ever ſince. In 1600 the Engliſh Eaſt-India company received its firſt formation, that trade being then in the hands of the Portugueſe (in conſequence of their having firſt diſcovered the paſſage to India by the Cape of Good Hope, by Vaſco de Gama, in the reign of Henry VII.), who at that time were ſubjects to Spain; and factories were eſtabliſhed in China, Japan, India, Amboyna, Java, and Sumatra.

As to Elizabeth's internal government, the ſucceſſes of her reign have diſguiſed it; for ſhe was far from being a friend to perſonal liberty, and ſhe was guilty of many ſtretches of power againſt the moſt ſacred rights of Engliſhmen. The ſevere ſtatutes againſt the puritans, debarring them of liberty of conſcience, and by which many ſuffered death, muſt be condemned.

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We can ſcarcely require a ſtronger proof that the Engliſh began to be tired of Elizabeth, than the joy teſtified by all ranks at the acceſſion of her ſucceſſor, notwithſtanding the long, inveterate animoſities between the two kingdoms. James was far from being deſtitute of natural abilities for government; but he had received wrong impreſſions of the regal office, and too high an opinion of his own dignity, learning, and political talents. It was his misfortune that he mounted the Engliſh throne under a full conviction that he was entitled to all the unconſtitutional powers that had been occaſionally exerciſed by Elizabeth and the houſe of Tudor; and which various cauſes had prevented the people from oppoſing with proper vigour. The nation had been wearied and exhauſted by the long and deſtructive wars between the houſes of Lancaſter and York, in the courſe of which, the ancient nobility were in great part cut off; and the people were inclined to endure much, rather than again involve themſelves in the miſeries of civil war. Neither did James make any allowance for the glories of Elizabeth, which, as I have obſerved, diſguiſed her moſt arbitrary acts; and none for the free, liberal ſentiments, which the improvement of knowledge and learning had diffuſed through England. It is needleſs, perhaps, to point out the vaſt increaſe of property through trade and navigation, which enabled the Engliſh at the ſame time to defend their liberties. James's firſt attempt of great conſequence was to effect an union between England and Scotland; but though he failed in this through the averſion of the Engliſh to that meaſure, on account of his loading his Scotch courtiers with wealth and honours, he ſhowed no violent reſentment at the diſappointment. It was an advantage to him at the beginning of his reign, that the courts of Rome and Spain were thought to be his enemies; and this opinion was increaſed by the diſcovery and defeat of the gunpowder treaſon *.

James and his miniſters were continually inventing new ways to raiſe

* This was a ſcheme of the Roman catholics to cut off at one blow the king, lords, and commons, at the meeting of Parliament; when it was alſo expected that the queen and prince of Wales would be preſent. The manner of enliſting any new conſpirator was by oath, and adminiſtering the ſacrament; and this dreadful ſecret, after being religiouſly kept near eighteen months, was happily diſcovered in the following manner: about ten days before the long wiſhed-for meeting of parliament, a Roman catholic peer received a letter, which had been delivered to his ſervant by an unknown hand, earneſtly adviſing him to ſhift off his attendance in parliament at that time; but which contained no kind of explanation. The nobleman, though he conſidered the letter as a fooliſh attempt to frighten and ridicule him, thought proper to lay it before the king, who ſtudying the contents with more attention, began to ſuſpect ſome dangerous contrivance by gunpowder; and it was judged adviſable to inſpect all the vaults below the houſes of parliament; but the ſearch was purpoſely delayed till the night immediately preceding the meeting, when a juſtice of peace was ſent with proper attendants, and before the door of the vault, under the upper houſe, finding one Fawkes, who had juſt finiſhed all his preparations, he immediately ſeized him, and at the ſame time diſcovered in the vault 36 barrels of powder, which had been carefully concealed under faggots, and piles of wood. The match, with every thing proper for ſetting fire to the train, were found in Fawkes's pocket, whoſe countenance beſpoke his ſavage diſpoſition, and who, after regretting that he had loſt the opportunity of deſtroying ſo many heretics, made a full diſcovery; and the conſpirators, who never exceeded eighty in number, being ſeized by the country people, confeſſed their guilt, and were executed in different parts of England. Nothwithſtanding this horrid crime, the bigoted catholics were ſo devoted to Garnet, a Jeſuit, one of the conſpirators, that they fancied miracles to be wrought by his blood, and in Spain he was conſidered as a martyr. The above letter to lord Mounteagle had long been ſuppoſed to be an artifice of Cecil's, his firſt miniſter, and that the king and himſelf received full intimation of the plot from Henry IV. of France, by the marquis de Sully. So they let the conſpirators work on, till all was prepared for the ſtroke, and they might know all their ſtrength.

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money, as by monopolies, benevolences, loans, and other illegal methods. Among other expedients he ſold the titles of baron, viſcount, and earl, at a certain price; made a number of knights of Nova Scotia, each to pay ſuch a ſum, and inſtituted a new order of knights baronets which was to be hereditary, for which each perſon paid 1095l.

His pacific reign was a ſeries of theological conteſts with eccleſiaſtical caſuiſts, in which he proved himſelf more a theologian than a prince; and in 1617 he attempted to eſtabliſh epiſcopacy in Scotland, but the zeal of the people baffled his deſign.

James gave his daughter, the princeſs Elizabeth, in marriage to the elector Palatine, the moſt powerful proteſtant prince in Germany, and he ſoon after aſſumed the crown of Bohemia. The memory of James has been much abuſed for his tame behaviour, after that prince had loſt his kingdom and electorate by the imperial arms; but it is to be obſerved, that he always oppoſed his ſon-in-law's aſſuming the crown of Bohemia; that had he kindled a war to reinſtate him in that and his electorate, he probably would have ſtood ſingle in the ſame, excepting the feeble and uncertain aſſiſtance he might have received from the elector's dependents and friends in Germany. Nothing, however, is more certain than that James furniſhed the elector with large ſums of money to retrieve them, and that he actually raiſed a regiment of 2200 men under ſir Horace Vere, who carried them over to Germany, where the Germans, under the marquis of Anſpach, refuſed to ſecond them againſt Spinola the Spaniſh general; and that the elector hurt his own cauſe by not giving the brave count Mansfield the command of his troops inſtead of Anſpach.

James has been greatly and juſtly blamed for his partiality to favourites. His firſt was Robert Carr, a private Scotch gentleman, who was raiſed to be firſt miniſter and earl of Somerſet. His next favourite was George Villiers, a private Engliſh gentleman, who, upon Somerſet's diſgrace, was admitted to an unuſual ſhare of favour and familiarity with his ſovereign. James had at that time formed a ſyſtem of policy for attaching himſelf intimately to the court of Spain, that it might aſſiſt him in recovering the Palatinate; and to this ſyſtem he had ſacrificed the brave ſir Walter Raleigh on a charge of having committed hoſtilities againſt the Spaniſh ſettlements in the Weſt-Indies. James having loſt his eldeſt ſon, Henry prince of Wales, who had an invincible antipathy to a popiſh match, threw his eyes upon the infanta of Spain as a proper wife for his ſon Charles, who had ſucceeded to that principality. Buckingham, who was equally a favourite with the ſon as with the father, fell in with the prince's romantic humour, and againſt the king's will, they travelled in diſguiſe to Spain, where a moſt ſolemn farce of courtſhip was played: but the prince returned without his bride; and had it not been for the royal partiality in his favour, the earl of Briſtol, who was then ambaſſador in Spain, would probably have brought Buckingham to the block.

James was all this while perpetually jarring with his parliament, whom he could not perſuade to furniſh money equal to his demands; and at laſt he agreed to his ſon's marrying the princeſs Henrietta Maria, ſiſter to Lewis XIII. and daughter to Henry the Great of France. James died before the completion of this match; and it is thought that, had he lived, he would have diſcarded Buckingham. His death happened in 1625, in the 59th year of his age, after a reign over England of twenty-two years. As to the progreſs of the arts and learning under his reign, it has been already deſcribed. James encouraged and employed that excellent painter ſir Peter Paul Rubens, as well as Inigo Jones, who reſtored the pure taſte of architecture in England; and in his reign, poetical genius, though

not

not much encouraged at court, arrived at its vertical point. Mr. Middleton alſo at this time projected the conveying water into the city from Herefordſhire, by means of pipes, which is now called the *New River*.

The death of the duke of Buckingham, the king's favourite, who was aſſaſſinated by one Felton, a ſubaltern officer, in 1628, did not deter Charles from his arbitrary proceedings, which the Engliſh patriots in that enlightened age juſtly conſidered as ſo many acts of tyranny. He, without authority of parliament, laid arbitrary impoſitions upon trade, which were refuſed to be paid by many of the merchants and members of the houſe of commons. Some of them were impriſoned, and the judges were checked for admitting them to bail. The houſe of commons reſented thoſe proceedings by drawing up a proteſt, and denying admittance to the gentleman-uſher of the black rod, who came to adjourn them, till it was finiſhed. This ſerved only to widen the breach, and the king diſſolved the parliament; after which he exhibited informations againſt nine of the moſt eminent members, among whom was the great Mr. Selden, who was as much diſtinguiſhed by his love of liberty, as by his uncommon erudition. They objected to the juriſdiction of the court, but their plea was over-ruled, and they were ſent to priſon during the king's pleaſure.

Every thing now operated towards the deſtruction of Charles. The commons would vote no ſupplies without ſome redreſs of the national grievances; upon which, Charles, preſuming on what had been practiſed in reigns when the principles of liberty were imperfectly, or not at all underſtood, levied money upon monopolies of ſalt, ſoap, and ſuch neceſſaries, and other obſolete claims, particularly for knighthood; and raiſed various taxes without authority of parliament. His government becoming every day more and more unpopular, Burton, a divine, Prynne, a lawyer, and Baſtwick, a phyſician, men of no great eminence or abilities, but warm and reſolute, publiſhed ſeveral pieces which gave offence to the court, and which contained ſome ſevere ſtrictures againſt the ruling clergy. They were proſecuted for theſe pieces in the ſtar-chamber in a very arbitrary and cruel manner; and puniſhed with ſo much rigour, as excited an almoſt univerſal indignation againſt the authors of their ſufferings. Thus was the government rendered ſtill more odious; and unfortunately for Charles, he put his conſcience into the hands of Laud, archbiſhop of Canterbury, who was as great a bigot as himſelf, both in church and ſtate. Laud adviſed him to perſecute the puritans, and, in the year 1637, to introduce epiſcopacy into Scotland. The Scots upon this formed ſecret connections with the diſcontented Engliſh, and invaded England in Auguſt, 1640, where Charles was ſo ill ſerved by his officers and his army, that he was forced to agree to an inglorious peace with the Scots, who made themſelves maſters of Newcaſtle and Durham; and being now openly befriended by the houſe of commons, they obliged the king to comply with their demands.

Charles had made Wentworth, earl of Strafford, a man of great abilities, preſident of the council of the North, and lord lieutenant of Ireland: and he was generally believed to be the firſt miniſter of ſtate. Strafford had been a leading member of the oppoſition to the court; but he afterwards, in conjunction with Laud, exerted himſelf ſo vigorouſly in carrying the king's deſpotic ſchemes into execution, that he became an object of public deteſtation. As lord preſident of the North, as lord lieutenant of Ireland, and as a miniſter and privy-counſellor in England, he behaved in a very arbitrary manner, and was guilty of many actions of great injuſtice and oppreſſion. He was, in conſequence, at length on the 22d of May, 1641, brought to the block, though much againſt the inclinations

nations of the king, who was in a manner forced by the parliament and people to ſign the warrant for his execution. Archbiſhop Laud was alſo beheaded; but his execution did not take place till a conſiderable time after that of Strafford, the 10th of January, 1645.

In the fourth year of his reign, Charles had paſſed the *petition of right* into a law, which was intended by the parliament as the future ſecurity of the liberty of the ſubject, which eſtabliſhed particularly, "That no man hereafter be compelled to make or yield any gift, loan, benevolence, tax or ſuch like charge, without common conſent by act of parliament;" but he afterwards violated it in numerous inſtances, ſo that an univerſal diſcontent at his adminiſtration prevailed throughout the nation. A rebellion alſo broke out in Ireland, on October 23, 1641, where the Proteſtants, without diſtinction of age, ſex, or condition, to the amount of many thouſands, were maſſacred by the Papiſts; and great pains were taken to perſuade the public that Charles ſecretly favoured them out of hatred to his Engliſh ſubjects. The biſhops were expelled the houſe of peers, on account of their conſtantly oppoſing the deſigns and bills of the other houſe; and the leaders of the Engliſh houſe of commons ſtill kept up a correſpondence with the diſcontented Scots. Charles was ill enough adviſed to go in perſon to the houſe of commons, January 4, 1642, and there demanded that lord Kimbolton, Mr. Pym, Mr. Hampden, Mr. Hollis, Sir Arthur Haſelrig, and Mr. Stroud, ſhould be apprehended; but they had previouſly made their eſcape. This act of Charles was reſented as high treaſon againſt his people, and the commons rejected all the offers of ſatisfaction he could make them.

Notwithſtanding the many acts of tyranny and oppreſſion, of which the king and his miniſters had been guilty, yet, when the civil war broke out, there were great numbers who repaired to the regal ſtandard. Many of the nobility and gentry were much attached to the crown, and conſidered their own honours as connected with it; and a great part of the landed intereſt was joined to the royal party. The parliament, however, took upon themſelves the executive power, and were favoured by moſt of the trading towns and corporations; but its great reſource lay in London. The king's general was the earl of Lindſey, a brave, but not an enterpriſing commander; but he had great dependence on his nephews, the princes Rupert and Maurice, ſons to the elector Palatine, by his ſiſter the princeſs Elizabeth. In the beginning of the war, the royal army had the aſcendency, but in the progreſs of it, affairs took a very different turn. The earl of Eſſex was made general under the parliament, and the firſt battle was fought at Edgehill in Warwickſhire, the 23d of October, 1642: but both parties claimed the victory, though the advantage lay with Charles; for the parliament was ſo much diſtreſſed, that they invited the Scots to come to their aſſiſtance, and they accordingly entered England anew, with about 20,000 horſe and foot. Charles attempted to remove the parliament to Oxford, where many members of both houſes met; but his enemies were ſtill ſitting at Weſtminſter, and continued to carry on the war againſt him with great animoſity. The independent party, which had ſcarcely before been thought of, began now to increaſe and to figure at Weſtminſter. They were averſe to the Preſbyterians, who till then had conducted the war againſt the king, nearly as much as to the royaliſts; and ſuch was their management, under the direction of the famous Oliver Cromwell, that a plan was formed for diſmiſſing the earls of Eſſex and Mancheſter, and the heads of the Preſbyterians, from the parliament's ſervice, ſuppoſing that they were not for bringing the war to a ſpeedy end, or not for reducing the king too low; and for introducing Fairfax,

who

who was an excellent officer, but more manageable, though a Presbyterian, and some independent officers. In the mean while the war went on with resentment and loss on both sides. Two battles were fought at Newbury, one on September 20th, 1643, and the other October 27th, 1644, in which the advantage inclined to the king. He had likewise many other successes; and having defeated sir William Waller, he pursued the earl of Essex, who remained still in command, into Cornwall, from whence he was obliged to escape by sea; but his infantry surrendered themselves prisoners to the royalists, though his cavalry delivered themselves by their valour.

The first fatal blow the king's army received, was at Marston-moor, July 2d, 1644, where, through the imprudence of prince Rupert, the earl of Manchester defeated the royal army, of which 4000 were killed, and 1500 taken prisoners. This victory was owing chiefly to the courage and conduct of Cromwell; and though it might have been retrieved by the successes of Charles in the West, yet his whole conduct was a string of mistakes, till at last his affairs became irretrievable. It is true, many treaties of peace, particularly one at Uxbridge, were set on foot during the war; and the heads of the presbyterian party would have agreed to terms that very little bounded the king's prerogative. They were outwitted and over-ruled by the independents, who were assisted by the stiffness, insincerity, and unamiable behaviour of Charles himself. In short, the independents at last succeeded in persuading the members at Westminster that Charles was not to be trusted, whatever his concessions might be. From that moment the affairs of the royalists rushed into ruin; Charles by piece-meal lost all his towns and forts, and was defeated by Fairfax and Cromwell, at the decisive battle of Naseby, June 14, 1645, owing partly, as usual, to the misconduct of prince Rupert. This battle was followed with fresh misfortunes to Charles, who retired to Oxford, the only place where he thought he could be safe.

The Scots were then besieging Newark, and no good understanding subsisted between them and the English parliamentarians; but the best and most loyal friends Charles had, thought it prudent to make their peace. In this melancholy situation of his affairs, he escaped in disguise from Oxford, and came to the Scotch army before Newark, on May 6, 1646, upon a promise of protection. The Scots, however, were so intimidated by the resolutions of the parliament at Westminster, that, in consideration of 400,000l. of their arrears being paid, they put the person of Charles into the hands of the parliament's commissioners, probably not suspecting the consequences.

The presbyterians were now more inclined than ever to make peace with the king; but they were no longer masters, being forced to receive laws from the army, and the independents. The army now avowed their intentions. They first by force took Charles out of the hands of the commissioners, June 4, 1647, and then dreading that a treaty might still take place with the king, they imprisoned 41 of the presbyterian members, voted the house of peers to be useless, and that of the commons was reduced to 150, most of them officers of the army. In the mean while, Charles, who unhappily promised himself relief from those dissensions, was carried from prison to prison, and sometimes cajoled by the independents with hopes of deliverance, but always narrowly watched. Several treaties were set on foot, but all miscarried; and he had been imprudent enough, after his effecting an escape, to put himself into colonel Hammond's hands, the parliament's governor of the isle of Wight. A fresh negotiation was begun, and almost finished, when the independents, dreading the general disposition of the people for peace, and strong-

ly perſuaded of the inſincerity of the king, once more ſeized upon his perſon, brought him priſoner to London, carried him before a court of juſtice of their own erecting; and, after an extraordinary trial, his head was cut off, before his own palace at Whitehall, on the 30th of January, 1648-9, being the 49th of his age, and the 24th of his reign.

Charles is allowed to have had many virtues; and ſome have ſuppoſed that affliction had taught him ſo much wiſdom and moderation, that, had he been reſtored to his throne, he would have become an excellent prince; but there is abundant reaſon to conclude, from his private letters, that he retained his arbitrary principles to the laſt, and that he would again have regulated his conduct by them, if he had been reinſtated in power. It is however certain, that, notwithſtanding the tyrannical nature of his government, his death was exceedingly lamented by great numbers; and many in the courſe of the civil war, who had been his great opponents in parliament, became converts to his cauſe, in which they loſt their lives and fortunes. The ſurviving children of Charles were Charles and James, who were ſucceſſively kings of England, Henry duke of Glouceſter, who died ſoon after his brother's reſtoration, the princeſs Mary, married to the prince of Orange, and mother to William prince of Orange, who was afterwards king of England, and the princeſs Henrietta Maria, who was married to the duke of Orleans, and whoſe daughter was married to victor Amadeus, duke of Savoy, and king of Sardinia.

They who brought Charles to the block, were men of different perſuaſions and principles; but many of them poſſeſſed moſt amazing abilities for government. They omitted no meaſure that could give a perpetual excluſion to kingly power in England; and it cannot be denied, that, after they erected themſelves into a commonwealth, they did prodigious things for retrieving the glory of England by ſea. They were joined by many of the preſbyterians, and both parties hated Cromwell and Ireton, though they were forced to employ them in the reduction of Ireland, and afterwards againſt the Scots, who had received Charles II. as their king. By cutting down the timber upon the royal domains, they produced, as it were by magic, all at once, a fleet ſuperior to any that had ever been ſeen in Europe. Their general, Cromwell, invaded Scotland; and though he was there reduced to great difficulties, he totally defeated the Scots at the battles of Dunbar and Worceſter. The ſame commonwealth paſſed an act of navigation; and declaring war againſt the Dutch, who were thought till then invincible by ſea, they effectually humbled thoſe republicans in repeated engagements.

By this time, Cromwell, who hated ſubordination to a republic, had the addreſs to get himſelf declared commander in chief of the Engliſh army. Admiral Blake, and the other Engliſh admirals, carried the terror of the Engliſh name by ſea to all quarters of the globe; and Cromwell, having now but little employment, began to be afraid that his ſervices would be forgotten; for which reaſon he went, April 20, 1653, without any ceremony, with about 300 muſqueteers, and diſſolved the parliament, opprobrioufly driving all the members, about a hundred, out of their houſe. He next annihilated the council of ſtate, with whom the executive power was lodged, and transferred the adminiſtration of government to about 140 perſons, whom he ſummoned to Whitehall, on the 4th of July, 1653.

The war with Holland, in which the Engliſh were again victorious, ſtill continued. Seven bloody engagements by ſea were fought in little more than the compaſs of one year; and in the laſt, which was deciſive in favour of England, the Dutch loſt their brave admiral, Van Tromp.

Cromwell all this while wanted to be declared king; but he perceived that he muſt encounter unſurmountable difficulties from Fleetwood and his other friends, if he ſhould perſiſt in his reſolution. He was, however, declared *lord protector* of the commonwealth of England; a title under which he exerciſed all the power that had been formerly annexed to the regal dignity. No king ever acted, either in England or Scotland, more deſpotically in ſome reſpects than he did; yet no tyrant ever had fewer real friends, and even thoſe few threatened to oppoſe him, if he ſhould take upon him the title of king. Hiſtorians, in drawing the character of Cromwell, have been impoſed upon by his amazing ſucceſs, and dazzled by the luſtre of his fortune; but when we conſult his ſecretary Thurloe's, and other ſtate papers, the impoſition in a great meaſure vaniſhes. After a moſt uncomfortable uſurpation of four years, eight months, and thirteen days, he died on the 3d of September, 1658, in the 60th year of his age.

It is not to be denied that England acquired much more reſpect from foreign powers, between the death of Charles I. and that of Cromwell, than ſhe had been treated with ſince the death of Elizabeth. This was owing to the great men who formed the republic which Cromwell aboliſhed, and who, as it were inſtantaneouſly, called forth the naval ſtrength of the kingdom. In the year 1656, the charge of the public amounted to one million three hundred thouſand pounds; of which a million went to the ſupport of the navy and army, and the remainder to that of the civil government. In the ſame year Cromwell aboliſhed all tenures *in capite*, by knight's ſervice, and the ſocage in chief, and likewiſe the courts of wards and liveries. Several other grievances that had been complained of during the late reigns, were likewiſe removed. Next year the total charge, or public expenſe of England, amounted to two millions three hundred twenty-ſix thouſand nine hundred and eighty-nine pounds. The collections by aſſeſſments, exciſe, and cuſtoms, paid into the Exchequer, amounted to two millions three hundred and ſixty two thouſand pounds, four ſhillings.

Upon the whole, it appears that England, from the year 1648, to the year 1658, was improved equally in riches and in power. The legal intereſt of money was reduced from 8 to 6 per cent. a ſure ſymptom of increaſing commerce. The famous and beneficial navigation act, that palladium of the Engliſh trade, was now planned and eſtabliſhed, and afterwards confirmed under Charles II. Monopolies of all kinds were aboliſhed, and liberty of conſcience to all ſects was granted, to the vaſt advantage of population and manufactures, which had ſuffered greatly by Laud's intolerant ſchemes having driven numbers of handicrafts to America, and foreign countries. To the above national meliorations we may add the modeſty and frugality introduced among the common people, and the citizens in particular, by which they were enabled to increaſe their capitals. It appears, however, that Cromwell, had he lived, and been firmly ſettled in the government, would have broken through the ſober maxims of the republicans; for ſome time before his death, he affected great magnificence in his perſon, court, and attendants. He maintained the honour of the nation much, and in many inſtances interpoſed effectually in favour of the proteſtants abroad. Arts and ſciences were not much patroniſed, and yet he had the good fortune to meet, in the perſon of Cooper, an excellent miniature painter; and his coins done by Simon exceed in beauty and workmanſhip any of that age. He certainly did many things worthy of praiſe; and as his genius and capacity led him to the choice of fit perſons for the ſeveral parts of adminiſtra-

tion, ſo he paid ſome regard to men of learning, and particularly to thoſe intruſted with the care of youth at the univerſities.

The fate of Richard Cromwell, who ſucceeded his father Oliver as protector, ſufficiently proves the great difference there was between them, as to ſpirit and parts, in the affairs of government. Richard was placed in his dignity by thoſe who wanted to make him the tool of their own government; and he was ſoon after driven, without the leaſt ſtruggle or oppoſition, into obſcurity. It is in vain for hiſtorians of any party to aſcribe the reſtoration of Charles II. (who with his mother and brothers, during the uſurpation, had lived abroad on a very precarious ſuſiſtence) to the merits of any particular perſons. The preſbyterians were very zealous in promoting it; but it was effected by the general concurrence of the people, who ſeemed to have thought that neither peace nor protection were to be obtained, but by the reſtoring the ancient conſtitution of monarchy. General Monk, a man of military abilities, but of no principles, excepting ſuch as ſerved his ambition or intereſt, had the ſagacity to obſerve this; and after temporiſing in various ſhapes, being at the head of the army, he made the principal figure in reſtoring Charles II. For this he was created duke of Albemarle, confirmed in the command of the army, and loaded with honours and riches.

Charles II. being reſtored in 1660, in the firſt year of his reign ſeemed to have a real deſire to promote his people's happineſs. Upon his confirming the abolition of all the feudal tenures, he received from the parliament a gift of the exciſe for life; and in this act, coffee and tea are firſt mentioned. By his long reſidence and that of his friends abroad, he imported into England the culture of many elegant vegetables; ſuch as that of aſparagus, artichokes, cauliflowers, and ſeveral kinds of beans, peas, and ſallads. Under him, Jamaica, which had been conquered by the Engliſh under the auſpices of Cromwell, was greatly improved, and made a ſugar colony. The Royal Society was inſtituted, and many popular acts reſpecting trade and coloniſation were paſſed. In ſhort, Charles knew and cultivated the true intereſts of his kingdom, till he was warped by pleaſure, and ſunk in indolence; failings that had the ſame conſequences as deſpotiſm itſelf. He appeared to intereſt himſelf in the ſufferings of his citizens, when London was burnt down in 1666; and its being rebuilt with greater luſtre and conveniences, is a proof of the increaſe of her trade; but there were no bounds to Charles's love of pleaſure, which led him into the moſt extravagant expenſes. He has been ſeverely cenſured for ſelling Dunkirk to the French king to ſupply his neceſſities, after he had ſquandered the immenſe ſums granted him by parliament. The price was about 250,000l. ſterling. But even in this, his conduct was more defenſible than in his ſecret connections with France, which were of the moſt ſcandalous nature, utterly repugnant to the welfare of the kingdom, and ſuch as muſt ever reflect infamy on his memory.

Among the evidences of his degeneracy as a king, may be mentioned his giving way to the popular clamour againſt the lord Clarendon, as the chief adviſer of the ſale of Dunkirk; a man of extenſive knowledge, and great abilities, and more honeſt in his intentions than moſt of his other miniſters, but whom he ſacrificed to the ſycophants of his pleaſurable hours. The firſt Dutch war, which began in 1665, was carried on with great reſolution and ſpirit under the duke of York; but through Charles's miſapplication of the public money which had been granted for the war, the Dutch, while a treaty of peace was depending

ing at Breda, found means to insult the royal navy of England, by sailing up the Medway as far as Chatham, and destroyed several capital ships of war. Soon after this, a peace was concluded at Breda between Great Britain and the States-general, for the preservation of the Spanish Netherlands; and Sweden having acceded to the treaty, 1668, it was called the *triple alliance.*

In 1671, Charles was so ill advised as to seize upon the money of the bankers, which had been lent him at 8l. per cent. and to shut up the Exchequer. This was an indefensible step; and Charles pretended to justify it by the necessity of his affairs, being then on the eve of a fresh war with Holland. This was declared in 1672, and had almost proved fatal to that republic; for in this war, the English fleet and army acted in conjunction with those of France. The duke of York commanded the English fleet, and displayed great gallantry in that station. The duke of Monmouth, the eldest and favourite natural son of Charles, commanded 6000 English forces, who joined the French in the Low Countries; and all Holland must have fallen into the hands of the French, had it not been for the vanity of their monarch Lewis XIV. who was in a hurry to enjoy his triumph in his capital, and some very unforeseen circumstances. All confidence was now lost between Charles and his parliament, notwithstanding the glory which the English fleet obtained by sea against the Dutch. The popular clamour at last obliged Charles to give peace to that republic, in consideration of 200,000l. which was paid him.

In some things, Charles acted very despotically. He complained of the freedom taken with his prerogative in coffee-houses, and ordered them to be shut up; but in a few days afterwards they were opened again. Great rigour and severity were exercised against the presbyterians, and all other nonconformists to episcopacy, which was again established with a high hand in Scotland as well as in England. His parliament addressed him, but in vain, to make war with France in the year 1677; for he was entirely devoted to that crown, and regularly received its money as a pensioner, and hoped through its influence and power to be absolute. It is not however to be denied, that the trade of England was now incredibly increased, and Charles entered into many vigorous measures for its protection and support.

Charles's connections in France gave him no merit in the eyes of his parliament, which grew every day more and more exasperated against the French and the papists; at the head of whom was the king's eldest brother, and presumptive heir of the crown, the duke of York. Charles dreaded the prospect of a civil war, and offered many concessions to avoid it. But many of the members of parliament were bent upon such a revolution as afterwards took place, and were secretly determined that the duke of York never should reign. In 1678, the famous Titus Oates, and some others, opened a plot, charging the papists with a design to murder the king, and to introduce popery by means of Jesuits in England, and from St. Omer's. Though nothing could be more ridiculous, and more self-contradictory, than some parts of their narrative, yet it was supported with the utmost zeal on the part of the parliament. The aged lord Stafford, Coleman, secretary to the duke of York, with many Jesuits, and other papists, were publicly executed on evidences, supposed now have been perjured, by those who will have the whole plot to have been a fiction. The queen herself escaped with difficulty; the duke of York was obliged to retire into foreign parts; and Charles, though convinced, as it is said, that the whole was an

impoſture, yielded to the torrent. At laſt it ſpent its force. The earl of Shafteſbury, who was at the head of the oppoſition, puſhed on the total excluſion of the duke of York from the throne. He was ſeconded by the ill-adviſed duke of Monmouth; and the bill, after paſſing the commons, miſcarried in the houſe of peers. All England was again in a flame; but the king, by a well-timed adjournment of the parliament to Oxford, ſeemed to recover the affections of his people to a very great degree.

The duke of York and his party made a ſcandalous uſe of their victory. They trumped up on their ſide a plot of the proteſtants for ſeizing and killing the king, and altering the government. This plot was as falſe as that which had been laid againſt the papiſts. The excellent lord Ruſſel, who had been remarkable in his oppoſition to the popiſh ſucceſſion, Algernon Sidney, and ſeveral other diſtinguiſhed proteſtants, were tried, condemned, and ſuffered death, and the king ſet his foot on the neck of oppoſition. Even the city of London was intimidated into the meaſures of the court, as were almoſt all the corporations in the kingdom. The duke of Monmouth and the earl of Shafteſbury were obliged to fly, and the duke of York returned in triumph to Whitehall. It was thought, however, that Charles repented of ſome of his arbitrary ſteps, and intended to have recalled the duke of Monmouth, and have executed ſome meaſures for the future quiet of his reign; when he died February 6th, 1684-5, in the 55th year of his age, and 25th of his reign. He had married Catharine, infanta of Portugal, by whom he received a large fortune in ready money, beſides the town and fortreſs of Tangier in Africa; but he left behind him no lawful iſſue. The deſcendants of his natural ſons and daughters are now amongſt the moſt diſtinguiſhed of the Britiſh nobility.

The reign of Charles has been celebrated for wit and gallantry, but both were coarſe and indelicate. The court was the nurſery of vice, and the ſtage exhibited ſcenes of impurity. Some readers were found, who could admire Milton as well as Dryden; and never perhaps were the pulpits of England ſo well ſupplied with preachers as in this reign. Our language was harmoniſed, refined, and rendered natural, witneſs the ſtyle of their ſermons; and the days of Charles may be called the Auguſtan age of mathematics and natural philoſophy. Charles loved and underſtood the arts more than he encouraged or rewarded them, eſpecially thoſe of Engliſh growth; but this neglect proceeded not from narrow-mindedneſs, but indolence and want of reflection. If the memory of Charles II. has been traduced for being the firſt Engliſh prince who formed a body of ſtanding force, as guards to his perſon; it ought to be remembered, at the ſame time, that he carried the art of ſhip-building to the higheſt perfection: and that the royal navy of England, at this day, owes its fineſt improvements to his and his brother's knowledge of naval affairs and architecture. As to his religion, James, ſoon after his death, publiſhed to the world, that his brother, notwithſtanding his repeated profeſſions of regard to the proteſtant faith, was a papiſt, and died ſuch; of which there are now inconteſtable proofs.

All the oppoſition which, during the late reign, had ſhaken the throne, ſeems to have vaniſhed at the acceſſion of James II. The popular affection towards him was increaſed by the early declaration he made in favour of the church of England, which, during the late reign, had formally pronounced all reſiſtance to the reigning king to be unlawful. This doctrine proved fatal to James, and almoſt ruined proteſtantiſm. The army and people ſupported him in cruſhing an ill-concerted rebellion of the

duke

duke of Monmouth, who pretended to be the lawful ſon of Charles II. and as ſuch had aſſumed the title of king. That duke's head being cut off, July 15. 1685, and ſome hundreds of his followers hanged, drawn, and quartered, in the Weſt of England, exhibiting a ſcene of barbarity ſcarcely ever known in this country, by the inſtrumentality of Jefferies and colonel Kirke, James deſperately reſolved to try how far the practice of the church of England would agree with her doctrine of non-reſiſtance. The experiment failed him. He made the moſt provoking ſteps to render popery the eſtabliſhed religion of his dominions. He pretended to a power of diſpenſing with the known laws; he inſtituted an illegal eccleſiaſtical court; he openly received and admitted into his privy council the pope's emiſſaries, and gave them more reſpect than was due to the miniſters of a ſovereign prince. He ſent an embaſſy to Rome, and received at his court the pope's nuncio. The encroachments he made upon both the civil and religious liberties of his people, are almoſt beyond deſcription, and were diſapproved of by the pope himſelf, and all ſober Roman catholics. His ſending to priſon, and proſecuting for a libel, ſeven biſhops, for preſenting a petition againſt reading his declaration for liberty of conſcience, and their acquittal upon a legal trial, alarmed his beſt proteſtant friends.

In this extremity, many great men in England and Scotland, though they wiſhed well to James, applied for relief to William prince of Orange, in Holland, a prince of great abilities, and the inveterate enemy of Louis XIV. who then threatened Europe with chains. The prince of Orange was the nephew and ſon-in-law of James, having married the princeſs Mary, that king's eldeſt daughter; and he at laſt embarked with a fleet of 500 ſail for England, avowing it to be his deſign to reſtore the church and ſtate to their true rights. Upon his arrival in England, he was joined not only by the Whigs but by many whom James had conſidered as his beſt friends; and even his daughter the princeſs Anne, and her huſband, George prince of Denmark, left him, and joined the prince of Orange, who ſoon diſcovered that he expected the crown. James might ſtill have reigned; but he was ſurrounded with French emiſſaries, and ignorant Jeſuits, who wiſhed him not to reign rather than not to reſtore popery. They ſecretly perſuaded him to ſend his queen and ſon, real or pretended, then but ſix months old, to France, and to follow them, in perſon; which he did; and thus, in 1688, ended his reign in England, which event in Engliſh hiſtory is termed *the Revolution*.

It is well known that king William's chief object was to humble the power of France, and his reign was ſpent in an almoſt uninterrupted courſe of hoſtilities with that power, which were ſupported by England, at an expenſe ſhe had never known before. The nation had grown cautious, through the experience of the two laſt reigns; and he gave his conſent to the *bill of rights*, by which the liberties of the people were confirmed and ſecured; though the friends of liberty in general complained that the bill of rights was very inadequate to what ought to have been inſiſted on, in a period ſo favourable to the enlargement and ſecurity of liberty, as a crown beſtowed by the free voice of the people. The two laſt kings had made a very bad uſe of the whole national revenue, which was put into their hands, and which was found to be ſufficient to raiſe and maintain a ſtanding army. The revenue was therefore now divided, part was allotted for the current national ſervice of the year, and was to be accounted for to parliament; and part, which is ſtill called the civil liſt money, was given to the king, for the ſupport of his houſe and dignity.

It was the juſt ſenſe the people of England had of their civil and religious rights alone, that could provoke them to agree to the late revolu-

tion; for they never in other reſpects had been at ſo high a pitch of wealth and proſperity as in the year 1688. The tonnage of their merchant ſhips, as appears from Dr. Davenant, was, that year, nearly double what it had been in 1666; and the tonnage of the royal navy, which, in 1660, was only 62,594 tons, was in 1688 increaſed to 101,032 tons. The increaſe of the cuſtoms, and the annual rental of England, was in the ſame proportion. The war with France, which, on the king's part, was far from being ſucceſsful, required an enormous expenſe, and the Iriſh continued, in general, faithful to king James. But many Engliſh, who wiſhed well to the Stuart family, dreaded their being reſtored by conqueſt; and the parliament enabled the king to reduce Ireland, and to gain the battle of the Boyne againſt James, who there loſt all the military honour he had acquired before. The marine of France proved ſuperior to that of England, in the beginning of the war; but in the year 1692, that of France received an irrecoverable blow in the defeat at La Hogue.

Invaſions were threatened, and conſpiracies diſcovered every day againſt the government, and the ſupply of the continental war forced the parliament to open new reſources for money. A land-tax was impoſed, and every ſubject's lands were taxed, according to their valuations given in by the ſeveral counties. Thoſe who were the moſt loyal gave the higheſt valuations, and were the heavieſt taxed, and this prepoſterous burthen ſtill continues; but the greateſt and boldeſt operation in finances that ever took place, was eſtabliſhed in that reign, which was the carrying on the war by borrowing money upon the parliamentary ſecurities, and which form what are now called the *public funds*. The chief projector of this ſcheme is ſaid to have been Charles Montague, afterwards lord Halifax. His chief argument for ſuch a project was, that it would oblige the monied part of the nation to befriend the Revolution intereſt, becauſe, after lending their money, they could have no hopes of being repaid but by ſupporting that intereſt, and the weight of taxes would oblige the commercial people to be more induſtrious. How well thoſe views have been anſwered, is needleſs here to obſerve, being already mentioned in the preſent ſtate of public credit.

William, notwithſtanding the vaſt ſervice he had done to the nation, and the public benefits which took place under his auſpices, particularly in the eſtabliſhment of the bank of England, and the recoining the ſilver money, met with ſo many mortifications from his parliament, that he actually reſolved upon an abdication, and had drawn up a ſpeech for that purpoſe, which he was prevailed upon to ſuppreſs. He long bore the affronts he met with in hopes of being ſupported in his war with France; but at laſt, in 1697, he was forced to conclude the peace of Ryſwick, with the French king, who acknowledged his title to the crown of England. By this time William had loſt his queen *, but the government was continued in his perſon. After peace was reſtored, the commons obliged him to diſband his army, all but an inconſiderable number, and to diſmiſs his favourite Dutch guards. Towards the end of his reign, his fears of ſeeing the whole Spaniſh monarchy in poſſeſſion of France at the death of the catholic king Charles II. which was every day expected, led him into a very impolitic meaſure, which was the partition treaty with France, by which that monarchy was to be divided between the houſes of Bourbon and Auſtria. This treaty was highly reſented by the parliament, and ſome of his miniſtry were impeached for adviſing it. It was thought William ſaw his error when it was too late. His miniſters were acquitted from their impeachment, and the death of king James diſcovered the inſincerity of the French court, which immediately proclaimed his ſon king of Great Britain.

* She died of the ſmall-pox, Dec. 28, 1694, in the thirty-third year of her age.

This

This perfidy rendered William again popular in England. The two houſes paſſed the bill of abjuration, and an addreſs for a war with France. The laſt and moſt glorious act of William's reign was his paſſing the bill for ſettling the ſucceſſion to the crown in the houſe of Hanover, on the 12th of June, 1701. His death was haſtened by a fall he had from his horſe, ſoon after he had renewed the grand alliance againſt France, on the 8th of March, 1702, the 52d year of his age, and the 14th of his reign in England. This prince was not made by nature for popularity. His manners were cold and forbidding, he ſeemed alſo ſometimes almoſt to loſe ſight of thoſe principles of liberty, for the ſupport of which he had been raiſed to the throne; and though he owed his royalty to the Whigs, yet he often favoured the Tories. The former had the mortification of ſeeing thoſe who had acted the moſt inimical to their party, and the free principles of the conſtitution, as the marquis of Halifax, the earl of Danby, and lord Nottingham, taken into favour, and reſume their places in the cabinet; and the whole influence of government extended, to ſilence all inquiries into the guilt of thoſe who had been the chief inſtruments in the cruel perſecutions of the paſt reign, and to the obtaining ſuch an act of indemnity as effectually ſcreened every delinquent from the juſt retaliation of injured patriotiſm. The reſcue and preſervation of religion and public liberty were the chief glory of William's reign; for England under him ſuffered ſeverely both by ſea and land; and the public debt, at the time of his death, amounted to the unheard-of ſum of 14,000,000.

Anne, princeſs of Denmark, by virtue of the act of ſettlement, and being the next proteſtant heir to her father James II. ſucceeded king William in the throne. As ſhe had been ill treated by the late king, it was thought ſhe would have deviated from his meaſures; but the behaviour of the French in acknowledging the title of her brother, who has ſince been well known by the name of the Pretender, left her no choice; and ſhe reſolved to fulfil all William's engagements with his allies, and to employ the earl of Marlborough, who had been impriſoned in the late reign on a ſuſpicion of Jacobitiſm, and whoſe wife was her favourite, as her general. She could not have made a better choice of a general and ſtateſman, for that earl excelled in both capacities. No ſooner was he placed at the head of the Engliſh army abroad, than his genius and activity gave a new turn to the war, and he became as much the favourite of the Dutch as his wife was of the queen.

Charles II. of Spain, in conſequence of the intrigues of France, and at the ſame time reſenting the partition treaty, to which his conſent had not been aſked, left his whole dominions by will to Philip, duke of Anjou, grandſon of Lewis XIV. and Philip was immediately proclaimed king of Spain; which laid the foundation of the family alliance between France and that nation. Philip's ſucceſſion was diſputed by the ſecond ſon of the emperor of Germany, who took upon himſelf the title of Charles III. and his cauſe was favoured by the empire, England, Holland, and other powers, who joined in a confederacy againſt the houſe of Bourbon, now become more dangerous than ever by the acquiſition of the whole Spaniſh dominions.

The capital meaſure of continuing the war againſt France being fixed, the queen found no great difficulty in forming her miniſtry, who were for the moſt part Tories; and the earl of Godolphin, who (though afterwards a leading Whig) was thought all his life to have a predilection for the late king James and his queen, was placed at the head of the treaſury. His ſon had married the earl of Marlborough's eldeſt daughter, and the earl could truſt no other with that important department.

In

In the courſe of the war, ſeveral glorious victories were obtained by the earl, who was ſoon made duke of Marlborough. Thoſe of Blenheim and Ramillies gave the firſt effectual checks to the French power. By that of Blenheim in 1704, the empire of Germany was ſaved from immediate deſtruction. Though prince Eugene was that day joined in command with the duke, yet the glory of the day was confeſſedly owing to the latter. The French general Tallard was taken priſoner, and ſent to England; and 20,000 French and Bavarians were killed, wounded, or drowned in the Danube, beſides about 13,000 who were taken, and a proportionable number of cannon, artillery, and trophies of war. About the ſame time, the Engliſh admiral, ſir George Rooke, reduced Gibraltar, which ſtill remains in our poſſeſſion. The battle of Ramillies, in 1706, was fought and gained under the duke of Marlborough alone. The loſs of the enemy there has been variouſly reported; it is generally ſuppoſed to have been 8000 killed or wounded, and 6000 taken priſoners; but the conſequences ſhowed its importance.

After the battle of Ramillies, the ſtates of Flanders aſſembled at Ghent, and recogniſed Charles for their ſovereign, while the confederates took poſſeſſion of Louvain, Bruſſels, Mechlin, Ghent, Oudenarde, Bruges, and Antwerp; and ſeveral other conſiderable places in Flanders and Brabant acknowledged the title of king Charles. The next great battle gained over the French was at Oudenarde, 1708, where they loſt 3000 on the field, and about 7000 taken priſoners; and the year after, September 11, 1709, the allies forced the French lines at Malplaquet near Mons, after a bloody action, in which the French loſt 15,000 men. Thus far I have recounted the flattering ſucceſſes of the Engliſh; but they were attended with many potions of bitter alloy.

The queen had ſent a very fine army to aſſiſt Charles III. in Spain, under the command of lord Galway: but in 1707, after he had been joined by the Portugueſe, the Engliſh were defeated in the plains of Almanza, chiefly through the cowardice of their allies. Though ſome advantages were obtained at ſea, yet that war in general was carried on to the detriment, if not the diſgrace of England. Prince George of Denmark, huſband to the queen, was then lord high admiral. At the ſame time England felt ſeverely the ſcarcity of hands in carrying on her trade and manufactures.

As Lewis XIV. profeſſed a readineſs for peace, and ſued earneſtly for it, the Whigs at laſt gave way to a treaty, and the conferences were held at Gertruydenburgh, 1710. They were managed on the part of England by the duke of Marlborough and the lord Townſhend, and by the marquis de Torcy for the French. All his offers were rejected by the duke and his aſſociates, as only deſigned to amuſe and divide the allies, and the war was continued.

The unreaſonable haughtineſs of the Engliſh plenipotentiaries at Gertruydenburgh (as ſome term it) and the then expected change of the miniſtry in England, ſaved France; and affairs from that day took a turn in its favour. Means were found to convince the queen, who was faithfully attached to the church of England, that the war in the end, if continued, muſt prove ruinous to her and her people, and that the Whigs were no friends to the national religion. The general cry of the deluded people was, that "the church was in danger," which, though groundleſs, had great effects. One Sacheverel, an ignorant, worthleſs preacher, had eſpouſed this clamour in one of his ſermons, with the ridiculous, impracticable doctrines of paſſive obedience and non-reſiſtance. It was, as it were, agreed by both parties to try their ſtrength in this man's cauſe. He

was

was impeached by the commons, and found guilty by the lords, who ventured to paſs upon him only a very ſmall cenſure. After this trial, the queen's affections were entirely alienated from the ducheſs of Marlborough, and the Whig adminiſtration. Her friends loſt their places, which were ſupplied by Tories, and even the command of the army was taken from the duke of Marlborough, in 1712, and given to the duke of Ormond, who produced orders for a ceſſation of arms; but they were diſregarded by the queen's allies in the Britiſh pay. And, indeed, the removal of the duke of Marlborough from the command of the army, while the war continued, was an act of the greateſt imprudence, and excited the aſtoniſhment of all Europe. So numerous had been his ſucceſſes, and ſo great his reputation, that his very name was almoſt equivalent to an army. But the honour and intereſt of the nation were ſacrificed to private court intrigues, managed by Mrs. Maſham, a relation of the ducheſs of Marlborough, who had ſupplanted her benefactreſs, and by Mr. Harley.

Conferences were opened for peace at Utrecht, in January, 1712, to which the queen and the French king ſent plenipotentiaries; and the allies being defeated at Denain, they grew ſenſible they were no match for the French, now that they were abandoned by the Engliſh. In ſhort, the terms were agreed upon between France and England. The reader needs not be informed of the particular ceſſions made by the French, eſpecially that of Dunkirk; but after all, the peace would have been ſtill more indefenſible and ſhameful than it was, had it not been for the death of the emperor Joſeph, by which his brother Charles III. for whom the war was chiefly undertaken, became emperor of Germany, as well as king of Spain; and the dilatorineſs, if not bad faith of the Engliſh allies, in not fulfilling their engagements, and throwing upon the Britiſh parliament almoſt the whole weight of the war; not to mention the exhauſted ſtate of the kingdom. Such was the ſtate of affairs at this critical period; and I am apt to think from their complexion that the queen had, by ſome ſecret influence, which never has yet been diſcovered, and was even concealed from ſome of her miniſters, inclined to call her brother to the ſucceſſion. The reſt of the queen's life was rendered uneaſy by the jarring of parties, and the contentions among her miniſters. The Whigs demanded a writ for the electoral prince of Hanover, as duke of Cambridge, to come to England; and ſhe was obliged haſtily to diſmiſs her lord-treaſurer, when ſhe fell into a lethargic diſorder, which carried her off the firſt of Auguſt 1714, in the fiftieth year of her age, and the thirteenth of her reign *. Notwithſtanding the exhauſted ſtate of England before the peace of Utrecht was concluded, yet the public credit was little or nothing affected by her death, though the national debt then amounted to about fifty millions; ſo firm was the dependence of the people upon the ſecurity of parliament.

* And with her ended the line of the Stuarts, which, from the acceſſion of James I. anno 1603, had ſwayed the ſceptre of England 111 years, and that of Scotland 343 years, from the acceſſion of Robert II. anno 1371. James, the late pretender, ſon of James II. and brother to queen Anne, upon his father's deceaſe, anno 1701, was proclaimed king of England, by Lewis XIV. at St. Germain's, and for ſome time treated as ſuch by the courts of Rome, France, Spain, and Turin. He reſided at Rome, where he kept up the appearance of a court, and continued firm in the Romiſh faith till his death, which happened in 1765. He left two ſons, viz. Charles Edward, born in 1720, who was defeated at Culloden in 1746, and upon his father's death repaired to Rome, where he continued for ſome time, and afterwards reſided at Florence, under the title of count Albany, but died lately. Henry, his ſecond ſon, who enjoys a dignified place in the church of Rome, and is known by the name of cardinal York. March 28th, 1772, Charles married Louiſa Maximilienne, born September 21ſt 1752, daughter to a prince of the family of Stolberg Grudern, in the Circle of Upper Saxony, and granddaughter, by the mother, of Thomas Bruce, late earl of Ayleſbury.

Anne

Anne had no ſtrength of mind, by herſelf, to carry any important re-
ſolve into execution; and ſhe left public meaſures in ſo indeciſive a ſtate,
that, upon her death, the ſucceſſion took place in terms of the act of ſet-
tlement, and George I. elector of Hanover, ſon of the princeſs Sophia,
grand-daughter of James I. was proclaimed king of Great Britain; his
mother, who would have been next in ſucceſſion, having died but a few
days before. He came over to England with ſtrong prepoſſeſſions againſt
the Tory miniſtry, moſt of whom he diſplaced. This did not make any
great alteration to his prejudice in England; but many of the Scots, by
the influence of the earl of Mar, and other chiefs, were driven into rebel-
lion in 1715, which was happily ſuppreſſed the beginning of the next year.

After all, the nation was in ſuch a diſpoſition that the miniſtry durſt
not venture to call a new parliament; and the members of that which was
ſitting, voted a continuance of their duration from three to ſeven years;
which is thought to have been the greateſt ſtretch of parliamentary pow-
er ever known, and a very indefenſible ſtep. Several other extraordinary
meaſures took place about the ſame time. Mr. Shippen, an excellent
ſpeaker, and member of parliament, was ſent to the Tower for ſaying
that the king's ſpeech was calculated for the meridian of Hanover rather
than of London; and one Matthews, a young journeyman printer, was
hanged for compoſing a ſilly pamphlet, that in latter times would not have
been thought worthy of animadverſion. The truth is, the Whig miniſtry
were exceſſively jealous of every thing that ſeemed to affect their maſter's
title: and George I. though a ſagacious, moderate prince, undoubtedly
rendered England too ſubſervient to his continental connections, which
were very various and complicated. He quarreled with the czar of Muſ-
covy about their German concerns; and had not Charles XII. king of
Sweden been killed ſo critically as he was, Great Britain probably would
have been invaded by that northern conqueror, great preparations being
made for that purpoſe, he being incenſed at George, as elector of Hano-
ver, for purchaſing Bremen and Verden of the Danes, which had been a
part of his dominions.

In 1718 he quarreled with Spain on account of the quadruple alliance,
that had been formed between Great Britain, France, Germany, and the
States General; and his admiral, ſir George Byng, by his orders, deſtroy-
ed the Spaniſh fleet at Syracuſe. A trifling war with Spain then com-
menced, but it was ſoon ended by the Spaniards delivering up Sardinia
and Sicily, the former to the duke of Savoy, and the latter to the emperor.

A national puniſhment, different from plague, peſtilence, and famine,
overtook England in the year 1720, by the ſudden riſe of the South Sea
ſtock, one of the trading companies; but of this we have already given
an account, under the article SOUTH SEA COMPANY.

The Jacobites thought to avail themſelves of the national diſcontent at
the South Sea ſcheme, and England's connections with the continent,
which every day increaſed. One Layer, a laywer, was tried and executed
for high treaſon. Several perſons of great quality and diſtinction were
apprehended on ſuſpicion: but the ſtorm fell chiefly on Francis Atter-
bury, lord biſhop of Rocheſter, who was deprived of his ſee and ſeat in
parliament, and baniſhed for life. There was ſome irregularity in the
proceedings againſt him, and therefore the juſtice of the biſhop's ſentence
has been queſtioned, though there is little or no reaſon to doubt there
was ſufficient proof of his guilt.

So fluctuating was the ſtate of Europe at this time, that, in September
1725, a freſh treaty was concluded at Hanover, between the kings of Great
Britain, France, and Pruſſia, to counterbalance an alliance that had been
formed

formed between the courts of Vienna and Madrid. A ſquadron was ſent to the Baltic, to hinder the Ruſſians from attacking Sweden, another to the Mediterranean, and a third, under admiral Hoſier, to the Weſt Indies, to watch the Spaniſh plate-fleets. This laſt was a fatal as well as an inglorious expedition. The admiral and moſt of his men periſhed by epidemical diſeaſes, and the hulks of his ſhips rotted ſo as to render them unfit for ſervice. The management of the Spaniards was little better. They loſt near 10,000 men in the ſiege of Gibraltar, which they were obliged to raiſe.

A quarrel with the emperor was the moſt dangerous to Hanover of any that could happen; but though an oppoſition in the houſe of commons was formed by ſir William Wyndham and Mr. Pulteney, the parliament continued to be more and more laviſh in granting money, and ſubſidies for the protection of Hanover, to the kings of Denmark and Sweden, and the landgrave of Heſſe-Caſſel. Such was the ſtate of affairs in Europe, when George I. ſuddenly died on the 11th of June 1727, at Oſnaburgh, in the ſixty-eighth year of his age, and the thirteenth of his reign. The reign of George I. is remarkable for the incredible number of bubbles and cheating projects to which it gave riſe, by which it was reckoned that almoſt a million and a half was won and loſt; and for the great alteration of the ſyſtem of Europe, by the concern which the Engliſh took in the affairs of the continent. The inſtitution of the ſinking fund for diminiſhing the national debt, is likewiſe owing to this period. The value of the northern parts of the kingdom began now to be better underſtood than formerly, and the ſtate of manufactures began to ſhift. This was chiefly owing to the unequal diſtribution of the land-tax, which rendered it difficult for the poor to ſubſiſt in certain counties, which had been forward in giving in the true value of their eſtates when that tax took place.

Sir Robert Walpole was conſidered as firſt miniſter of England when George I. died; and ſome differences having happened between him and the prince of Wales, it was generally thought, upon the acceſſion of the latter to the crown, that ſir Robert would be diſplaced. That might have been the caſe, could another perſon have been found, equally capable as he was, to manage the houſe of commons, and to gratify that predilection for Hanover which George II. inherited from his father. No miniſter ever underſtood better the temper of the people of England, and none, perhaps, ever tried it more. He filled all places of power, truſt, and profit, and almoſt the houſe of commons itſelf, with his own creatures; but peace was his darling object, becauſe he thought that war muſt be fatal to his power. During his long adminiſtration he never loſt a queſtion that he was in earneſt to carry. The exciſe ſcheme was the firſt meaſure that gave a ſhock to his power: and even that he could have carried, had he not been afraid of the ſpirit of the people without doors, which might have either produced an inſurrection, or endangered his intereſt in the next general election.

His pacific ſyſtem brought him, however, into inconveniences both at home and abroad. It encouraged the Spaniards to continue their depredations upon the Britiſh ſhipping in the American ſeas, and the French to treat the Engliſh court with inſolence and neglect. At home, many of the great peers thought themſelves ſlighted, and they intereſted themſelves more than ever they had done in elections. This, together with the diſguſt of the people at the propoſed exciſe ſcheme, and paſſing the *Gin Act* in the year 1736, increaſed the minority in the houſe of commons to 130, ſome of whom were as able men and as good ſpeakers as ever had ſat in a parliament; and taking advantage of the increaſing complaints againſt the Spaniards, they attacked the miniſter with great ſtrength of argument and with great eloquence. In juſtice to Walpole, it ſhould be obſerved, that he

filled the courts of juſtice with able and upright judges, nor was he ever known to attempt any perverſion of the known law of the kingdom. He was ſo far from checking the freedom of debate, that he bore with equanimity the moſt ſcurrilous debate that was thrown out to his face. He gave way to one or two proſecutions for libels, in compliance to his friends, who thought themſelves affected by them; but it is certain, that the preſs of England never was more open or free than during his adminiſtration. And as to his pacific ſyſtem, it undoubtedly more than repaid to the nation all that was required to ſupport it, by the increaſe of her trade and the improvements of her manufactures.

Queen Caroline, conſort to George II. had been always a firm friend to the miniſter; but ſhe died November 20th, 1737, when a variance ſubſiſted between the king and his ſon, the prince of Wales. The latter complained, that through Walpole's influence he was deprived not only of the power but the proviſion to which his birth entitled him; and he put himſelf at the head of the oppoſition with ſo much firmneſs, that it was generally foreſeen Walpole's power was drawing to a criſis. Admiral Vernon, who hated the miniſter, was ſent, in 1739, with a ſquadron of ſix ſhips to the Weſt Indies, where he took and demoliſhed Porto Bello; but being a hot, intractable man, he miſcarried in his other attempts, eſpecially that upon Carthagena, in which ſome thouſands of Britiſh lives were wantonly thrown away. The oppoſition exulted in Vernon's ſucceſs, and afterwards imputed his miſcarriages to the miniſter's ſtarving the war, by with-holding the means for carrying it on. The general election approaching, ſo prevalent was the intereſt of the prince of Wales in England, and that of the duke of Argyle in Scotland, that a majority was returned to parliament who were no friends to the miniſter; and after a few trying diviſions, he retired from the houſe, on the 9th of February, 1742, was created earl of Orford, and on the 11th reſigned all his employments.

George II. bore the loſs of his miniſter with the greateſt equanimity, and even conferred titles of honour, and poſts of diſtinction, upon the heads of the oppoſition. By this time, the death of the emperor Charles VI. the danger of the pragmatic ſanction (which meant the ſucceſſion of his daughter to all the Auſtrian dominions), through the ambition of France, who had filled all Germany with her armies, and many other concurrent cauſes, induced George to take the leading part in a continental war. He was encouraged to this by lord Carteret, afterwards earl of Granville, an able, but headſtrong miniſter, whom George had made his ſecretary of ſtate, and indeed by the voice of the nation in general. George accordingly put himſelf at the head of his army, fought and gained the battle of Dettingen, June 16, 1743; and his not ſuffering his general, the earl of Stair, to improve the blow, was thought to proceed from tenderneſs for his electoral dominions.

Great Britain was then engaged in a very expenſive war both againſt the French and Spaniards, and her enemies thought to avail themſelves of the general diſcontent that had prevailed in England on account of Hanover, and which, even in parliamentary debates, was thought by ſome to exceed the bounds of decency. This naturally ſuggeſted to them the idea of applying to the Pretender, who reſided at Rome; and he agreed that his ſon Charles, who was a ſprightly young man, ſhould repair to France, from whence he ſet ſail, and narrowly eſcaped with a few followers, in a frigate, to the weſtern coaſts of Scotland, between the iſlands of Mull and Sky, where he diſcovered himſelf, aſſembled his followers, and publiſhed a manifeſto exciting the nation to a rebellion. It is neceſſary, before we relate the true cauſe of this enterpriſe, to make a ſhort retroſpect to foreign parts.

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The war of 1741 proved unfortunate in the Weſt Indies, through the fatal diviſions between admiral Vernon and general Wentworth, who commanded the land troops: and it was thought that above 20,000 Britiſh ſoldiers and ſeamen periſhed in the impracticable attempt on Carthagena, and the inclemency of the air and climate during other idle expeditions. The year 1742 had been ſpent in negotiations with the courts of Peterſburgh and Berlin, which, though expenſive, proved of little or no ſervice to great Britain; ſo that the victory of Dettingen left the French troops in much the ſame ſituation as before. A difference between the admirals Matthews and Leſtock had ſuffered the Spaniſh and French fleets to eſcape out of Toulon with but little loſs; and ſoon after, the French, who had before only acted as allies to the Spaniards, declared war againſt Great Britain, who, in her turn, declared war againſt the French. The Dutch, the natural allies of England, during this war, carried on a moſt lucrative trade; nor could they be brought to act againſt the French till the people entered into aſſociations and inſurrections againſt the government. Their marine was in a miſerable condition; and when they at laſt ſent a body of troops to join the Britiſh and Auſtrian armies, which had been wretchedly commanded for one or two campaigns, they did it with ſo bad a grace, that it was plain they did not intend to act in earneſt. When the duke of Cumberland took upon himſelf the command of the army, the French, to the great reproach of the allies, were almoſt maſters of the barrier of the Netherlands, and were beſieging Tournay. The duke attempted to raiſe the ſiege: but by the coldneſs of the Auſtrians, the cowardice of the Dutch, whoſe government all along held a ſecret correſpondence with France, and miſconduct ſomewhere elſe, he loſt the battle of Fontenoy, and 7000 of his beſt men; though it is generally allowed that his diſpoſitions were excellent, and both he and his troops behaved with unexampled intrepidity. To counterbalance ſuch a train of misfortunes, admiral Anſon returned this year to England, with an immenſe treaſure (about a million ſterling), which he had taken from the Spaniards in his voyage round the world; and commodore Warren, with colonel Pepperel, took from the French the important town and fortreſs of Louiſburgh, in the iſland of Cape Breton.

Such was the ſtate of affairs abroad in Auguſt, 1745, when the Pretender's eldeſt ſon, at the head of ſome Highland followers, ſurpriſed and diſarmed a party of the king's troops in the weſtern Highlands, and advanced with great rapidity to Perth. The government never ſo thoroughly experienced, as it did at that time, the benefit of the public debt for the ſupport of the Revolution. The French and the Jacobite party (for ſuch there was at that time in England) had laid a deep ſcheme of diſtreſſing the Bank; but common danger aboliſhed all diſtinctions, and united them in the defence of one intereſt, which was private property. The merchants undertook, in their addreſs to the king, to ſupport it by receiving bank notes in payment. This ſeaſonable meaſure ſaved public credit; but the defeat of the rebels by the duke of Cumberland at Culloden, in the year 1746, did not reſtore tranquillity to Europe. Though the prince of Orange, ſon-in-law to his majeſty George II. was, by the credit of his majeſty, and the ſpirit of the people of the United Provinces, raiſed to be their ſtadtholder, the Dutch never could be brought to act heartily in the war. The allies were defeated at Val, near Maeſtricht, and the duke of Cumberland was in danger of being made priſoner. Bergen-op-zoom was taken in a manner that has never yet been accounted for. The allies ſuffered other diſgraces on the continent; and it now became the general opinion in England, that peace was neceſſary to ſave the duke and his army from total deſtruction.

ſtruction. By this time, however, the French marine and commerce were in danger of being annihilated by the Engliſh at ſea, under the command of the admirals Anſon, Warren, Hawke, and other gallant officers; but the Engliſh arms were not ſo ſucceſsful as could have been wiſhed, under rear admiral Boſcawen in the Eaſt Indies. In this ſtate of affairs, the ſucceſſes of the French and Engliſh, during the war, may be ſaid to have been balanced, and both miniſters turned their thoughts to peace.

However this might be, preliminaries for peace were ſigned in April, 1748, and a definitive treaty was concluded at Aix-la-Chapelle in October; the baſis of which was the reſtitution, on both ſides, of all places taken during the war. The next year the intereſt of the national debt was reduced from four to three and a half per cent. for ſeven years, after which the whole was to ſtand reduced to three per cent.

This was the boldeſt ſtroke of financing that ever was attempted perhaps in any country, conſiſtently with public faith; for the creditors of the government, after a ſmall ineffectual oppoſition, continued their money in the funds, and a few who ſold out even made intereſt to have it replaced on the ſame ſecurity, or were paid off their principal ſums out of the ſinking fund.

A new treaty of commerce was ſigned at Madrid, between Great Britain and Spain, by which, in conſideration of 100,000l. the South Sea company gave up all their future claims to the aſſiento contract, by virtue of which, that company had ſupplied the Spaniſh Weſt Indies with negroes. In March, 1750, died, univerſally lamented, his royal highneſs Frederic, prince of Wales. In May, 1751, an act paſſed for regulating the commencement of the year, by which the old ſtyle was aboliſhed, and the new ſtyle eſtabliſhed, to the vaſt conveniency of the ſubjects. This was done by ſinking eleven days in September, 1752, and from that time beginning the year on the firſt of January. In 1753, the famous act paſſed for preventing clandeſtine marriages: but whether it is for the benefit of the ſubject, is a point that is ſtill very queſtionable.

The barefaced encroachments of the French, who had built forts on our back ſettlements in America, and the diſpoſitions they made for ſending over vaſt bodies of veteran troops to ſupport thoſe encroachments, produced a wonderful ſpirit in England, eſpecially after admiral Boſcawen was ordered, with eleven ſhips of the line, beſides a frigate and two regiments, to ſail to the banks of Newfoundland, where he came up with and took two French men of war, the reſt of their fleet eſcaping up the river St. Laurence, by the ſtraits of Belleiſle. No ſooner was it known that hoſtilities were begun, than the people of England poured their money into the government's loan, and orders were iſſued for making general repriſals in Europe as well as in America; and that all the French ſhips, whether outward or homeward bound, ſhould be ſtopped and brought into Britiſh ports. Theſe orders were ſo effectual, that, before the end of the year 1765, above 500 of the richeſt French merchant ſhips, and above 8,000 of their beſt ſailors, were brought into the kingdom. This well-timed meaſure had ſuch an effect, that the French had neither hands to navigate their merchantmen, nor to man their ſhips of war; for, about two years after, near 30,000 French ſeamen were found to be priſoners in England.

In July, 1755, general Braddock, who had been injudiciouſly ſent from England to attack the French, and reduce the forts on the Ohio, was defeated and killed, by falling into an ambuſcade of the French and Indians near Fort du Quêne; but major-general Johnſon de-

feated a body of French near Crown Point, of whom he killed about 1000.

In proportion as the ſpirits of the public were elevated by the formidable armaments which were prepared for carrying on the war, they were ſunk with an account that the French had landed 11,000 men in Minorca, to attack Fort St. Philip there; that admiral Byng who had been ſent out with a ſquadron, at leaſt equal to that of the French, had been baffled, if not defeated, by their admiral Galliſſoniere, and that at laſt Minorca was ſurrendered by general Blakeney. The Engliſh were far more alarmed than they ought to have been at thoſe events. The loſs of Minorca was more ſhameful than detrimental to the kingdom, but the public outcry was ſuch, that the king gave up Byng to public juſtice, and he was ſhot at Portſmouth for not doing all that was in his power againſt the enemy.

It was about this time that Mr. Pitt was placed, as ſecretary of ſtate, at the head of adminiſtration. He had long been known to be a bold, eloquent, and energetic ſpeaker, and he ſoon proved himſelf to be as ſpirited a miniſter. The miſcarriages in the Mediterranean had no conſequence but the loſs of Fort St. Philip, which was more than repaired by the vaſt ſucceſs of the Engliſh privateers, both in Europe and America. The ſucceſſes of the Engliſh in the Eaſt Indies, under colonel Clive, are almoſt incredible. He defeated Suraja Dowla, nabob of Bengal, Bahar, and Orixa, and placed Jaffier Ally Cawn in the ancient ſeat of the nabobs of thoſe provinces. Suraja Dowla, who was in the French intereſt, a few days after his being defeated, was taken by the new nabob, Jaffier Ally Cawn's ſon, and put to death. This event laid the foundation of the preſent amazing extent of riches and territory which the Engliſh now poſſeſs in the Eaſt Indies.

Mr. Pitt introduced into the cabinet a new ſyſtem of operations againſt France, than which nothing could be better calculated to reſtore the ſpirits of his countrymen, and to alarm their enemies. Far from dreading an invaſion, he planned an expedition for carrying the arms of England into France itſelf; and the deſcent was to be made at Rochefort under general ſir John Mordaunt, who was to command the land troops. Nothing could be more promiſing than the diſpoſitions for this expedition. It ſailed on the 8th of September 1757; and admiral Hawke brought both the ſea and land forces back on the 6th of October, to St Helen's, without the general making any attempt to land on the coaſt of France. He was tried and acquitted, without the public murmuring; ſo great an opinion had the people of the miniſter, who, to do him juſtice, did not ſuffer a man or a ſhip belonging to the Engliſh army or navy to lie idle.

The French having attacked the electorate of Hanover, with a moſt powerful army, merely becauſe his Britannic majeſty refuſed to wink at their encroachments in America, the Engliſh parliament, in gratitude, voted large ſupplies of men and money in defence of the electoral dominions. The duke of Cumberland had been ſent thither to command an army of obſervation, but was ſo powerfully preſſed by a ſuperior army, that he found himſelf obliged to lay down his arms; and the French, under the duke of Richelieu, took poſſeſſion of that electorate and its capital. At this time, a ſcarcity, next to a famine, raged in England; and the Heſſian troops, who, with the Hanoverians, had been ſent to defend the kingdom from an invaſion intended from the French, remained ſtill in England. So many difficulties concurring, in 1758, a treaty of mutual defence was agreed to between his majeſty and the king of Pruſſia: in conſequence of which, the parliament voted 670,000l. to his Pruſſian ma-

jesty: and also voted large sums, amounting in the whole to two millions a year, for the payment of 50,000 of the troops of Hanover, Hesse-Cassel, Saxe-Gotha, Wolfenbuttel, and Buckeburg. This treaty, which proved afterwards so burdensome to England, was intended to unite the protestant interest in Germany.

George II. with the consent of his Prussian majesty, declaring that the French had violated the convention concluded between them and the duke of Cumberland at Closterseven, ordered his Hanoverian subjects to resume their arms under prince Ferdinand of Brunswick, a Prussian general, who instantly drove the French out of Hanover; and the duke of Marlborough, after the English had repeatedly insulted the French coasts, by destroying their stores and shipping at St. Malo and Cherbourg, marched into Germany, and joined prince Ferdinand with 12,000 British troops, which were afterwards increased to 25,000. A war ensued, in the course of which the English every where performed wonders, and were every where victorious; but nothing decisive followed, and the enemy opened every campaign with advantage. Even the battle of Minden, the most glorious, perhaps, in the English annals, in which 7000 English defeated 80,000 of the French regular troops in fair battle, contributed nothing to the conclusion of the war, or towards weakening the French in Germany.

The English bore the expences of the war with chearfulness, and applauded Mr. Pitt's administration, because their glorious successes in every other part of the globe demonstrated that he was in earnest. Admiral Boscawen and general Amherst, in August 1758, reduced and demolished Louisburgh in North America, which had been restored to the French by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, and was become the scourge of the British trade, and took five or six French ships of the line; Frontenac and Fort du Quesne, in the same quarter, fell also into the hands of the English; acquisitions that far overbalanced a check which the English received at Ticonderoga, and the loss of above 300 of the English guards, as they were returning under general Bligh from the coast of France.

The English affairs in the East Indies this year proved equally fortunate; and the lords of the admiralty received letters from thence, with an account that Admiral Pococke had engaged the French fleet near Fort St. David's on the 29th of March, in which engagement a French man of war, called the Bien-aimé, of 74 guns, was so much damaged that they run her on shore; that on the 3d of August following, he engaged the French fleet a second time near Pondicherry; when, after a brisk firing of ten minutes, the French bore away with all the sail they could make, and got safe into the road of Pondicherry; and that on the 14th of December following, general Lally, commander of the French army in those parts, marched to besiege Madras, which was defended by the English colonels Lawrence and Draper; and after a brisk canonade, which lasted till the 16th of February following, the English having received a reinforcement of 600 men, general Lally thought proper to raise the siege, and retire with precipitation, leaving behind him forty pieces of cannon.

The year 1759 was introduced by the taking of the island of Gorée, on the coast of Africa, by commodore Keppel. Three capital expeditions had been planned for this year in America, and all of them proved successful. One of them was against the French islands in the West Indies, where Guadaloupe was reduced. The second expedition was against Quebec, the capital of Canada. The command was given, by the minister's advice, to general Wolfe, a young officer of a truly military genius. Wolfe was opposed, with far superior force, by Montcalm, the best and most successful general the French had. Though the situation of the country

which Wolfe was to attack, and the works the French threw up to prevent a deſcent of the Engliſh, were deemed impregnable, yet Montcalm never relaxed in his vigilance. Wolfe's courage and perſeverance, however, ſurmounting incredible difficulties, he gained the heights of Abraham, near Quebec, where he fought and defeated the French army, but was himſelf killed, as was Montcalm; general Monkton, who was next in command, being wounded, the completion of the French defeat, and the glory of reducing Quebec, was reſerved for brigadier-general (now lord viſcount) Townſhend.

General Amherſt, who was the firſt Engliſh general in command in America, conducted the third expedition. His orders were to reduce all Canada, and to join the army under general Wolfe on the banks of the river St. Lawrence. It is to the honour of the miniſter, Mr. Amherſt in this expedition was ſo well provided with every thing that could make it ſucceſsful, that there ſcarcely appeared any chance for its miſcarriage; and thus the French empire in North America became ſubject to Great Britain.

The affairs of the French being now deſperate, and their credit ruined, they reſolved upon an attempt to retrieve all by an invaſion of Great Britain: but on the 8th of Auguſt, 1759, admiral Boſcawen attacked the Toulon ſquadron, commanded by M. de la Clue, near the ſtraits of Gibraltar, took Le Centaure of 74, Le Temeraire of 74, and Le Modeſte of 74 guns; and burnt L'Ocean of 80, and Le Redoutable of 74 guns. The reſt of the fleet, conſiſting of ſeven ſhips of the line and three frigates, made their eſcape in the night; and on Nov. 20, ſir Edward Hawke defeated the Breſt fleet, commanded by admiral Conflans, off the iſland of Dumet, in the Bay of Biſcay. The Formidable, a French man of war of 80 guns, was taken; the Theſée of 74, and the Superbe of 70 guns, were ſunk; and the Soleil Royal of 80, and the Heros of 74 guns were burnt, and afterwards the Juſte of 74 periſhed in the mouth of the Loire. Seven or eight French men of war of the line got up the river Villaine, by throwing their guns overboard; and the reſt of the fleet, conſiſting of five ſhips of the line and three frigates, eſcaped in the night. The Engliſh loſt, on this occaſion, the Eſſex of 64, and the Reſolution of 74 guns, which ran aſhore in the chaſe. After this enagement, the French gave over all thoughts of their invaſion of Great Britain.

In February 1760, captain Thurot, a French marine adventurer, who had, with three ſloops of war, alarmed the coaſts of Scotland, and actually made a deſcent at Carickfergus in Ireland, was, on his return from thence, met, defeated, and killed by captain Elliot, the commodore of three ſhips, inferior in force to the Frenchman's ſquadron. In ſhort, Great Britain now reigned as ſole miſtreſs of the main, and ſucceeded in every meaſure that had been projected for her own ſafety and advantage.

The war in Germany, however, continued ſtill as undeciſive as it was expenſive, and many in England began to conſider it now as foreign to the internal intereſts of Great Britain. The French again and again ſhewed diſpoſitions for treating; and the charges of the war, which began now to amount to little leſs than eighteen millions ſterling, yearly, inclined the Britiſh miniſtry to liſten to their propoſals. A negociation was accordingly entered upon, which proved abortive, as did many other projects for accommodation; but on the 25th of October 1760, George II. died ſuddenly (from a rupture in the right ventricle of the heart), full of years and glory, in the 77th year of his age, and 34th of his reign, and was ſucceeded by his grandſon, now George III. eldeſt ſon to the late prince of Wales.

The memory of George II. is reprehenſible on no head but his predilection for his electoral dominions. He never could ſeparate an idea that there was any difference between them and his regal dominions; and he was ſometimes ill enough adviſed to declare ſo much in his ſpeeches to parliament. We are, however, to remember, that his people gratified him in this partiality, and that he never acted by power or prerogative. He was not very acceſſible to converſation, and therefore it was no wonder, that having left Germany after he had attained to man's eſtate, he ſtill retained foreign notions both of men and things. In government he had no favourite, for he parted with ſir Robert Walpole's adminiſtration with great indifference, and ſhewed very little concern at the ſubſequent revolutions among his ſervants. In his perſonal diſpoſition he was paſſionate, but placable, fearleſs of danger, fond of military parade, and enjoyed the memory of the campaigns in which he ſerved when young. His affections, either public or private, were never known to interfere with the ordinary courſe of juſtice; and though his reign was diſtracted by party, the courts of juſtice were never better filled than under him; this was a point in which all factions were agreed.

King George III. aſcended the throne with great advantages. His being a native of England prejudiced the people in his favour; he was in the bloom of youth, in his perſon tall and comely, and at the time of his acceſſion, Great Britain was in the higheſt degree of reputation and proſperity, and the moſt ſalutary unanimity and harmony prevailed among the people. The firſt acts of his reign ſeemed alſo calculated to convince the public that the death of his predeceſſor ſhould not relax the operations of the war. Accordingly, in 1761, the iſland of Belleiſle, on the coaſt of France, ſurrendered to his majeſty's ſhips and forces under commodore Keppel and general Hodgſon; as did the important fortreſs of Pondicherry, in the Eaſt Indies, to colonel Coote and admiral Stevens. The operations againſt the French Weſt Indies ſtill continued under general Monkton, lord Rollo, and ſir James Douglas; and in 1762, the iſland of Martinico, hitherto deemed impregnable, with the iſlands of Grenada, St. Lucia, Grenadillas, St. Vincent, and others of leſs note, were ſubdued by the Britiſh arms with inconceivable rapidity.

In the mean time Mr. Pitt, who had conducted the war againſt France with ſuch eminent ability, and who had received the beſt information of the hoſtile intentions, and private intrigues of the court of Spain, propoſed in council an immediate declaration of war againſt that kingdom. But he was over-ruled in the council, all the members of which declared themſelves of a contrary opinion, excepting his brother-in-law earl Temple. Mr. Pitt now found the decline of his influence; and it was ſuppoſed that the earl of Bute, who had a conſiderable ſhare in directing the education of the king, had acquired an aſcendency in the royal favour*. Mr. Pitt, however, ſaid, "that as he was called to the miniſtry by the voice of the people, to whom he conſidered himſelf as accountable for his conduct, he would no longer remain in a ſituation which made him reſponſible for meaſures that he was no longer allowed to guide." He therefore reſigned the ſeals, and lord Temple alſo gave up the poſt which he held in the adminiſtration. But the next day the king ſettled a penſion of three thouſand pounds a year upon Mr. Pitt, and at the ſame time a title was conferred upon his lady and her iſſue; and the penſion was to be continued for three lives.

The war ſtill continued to be carried on with vigour after the reſignation

* It was on the 25th of March 1761, that the earl of Bute was appointed one of the principal ſecretaries of ſtate; and on the 5th of October following, Mr. Pitt reſigned the ſeals.

of Mr. Pitt, and the plans were purſued that he had previouſly concerted. Lord Egremont was appointed to ſucceed him, as ſecretary for the ſouthern department. It was at length alſo found indiſpenſably neceſſary to engage in a war with Spain, the famous family compact among all the different branches of the Bourbon family being generally known; and accordingly war was declared againſt that kingdom, on the 4th of January, 1762. A reſpectable armament was fitted out under admiral Pococke, having the earl of Albemarle on board to command the land forces; and the vitals of the Spaniſh monarchy were ſtruck at, by the reduction of the Havannah, the ſtrongeſt and moſt important fort which his catholic majeſty held in the Weſt Indies, after a ſiege of two months and eight days. The capture of the Hermione, a large Spaniſh regiſter ſhip, bound from Lima to Cadiz, the cargo of which was valued at a million ſterling, preceded the birth of the prince of Wales, and the treaſure paſſed in triumph through Weſtminſter to the bank in the very hour he was born. The loſs of the Havannah, with the ſhips and treaſures there taken from the Spaniards, was ſucceeded by the reduction of Manilla and the Philippine iſlands in the Eaſt Indies, under general Draper and admiral Corniſh, with the capture of the Trinidad, reckoned worth three millions of dollars. To counteract thoſe dreadful blows given to the family compact, the French and Spaniards opened their laſt reſource, which was to quarrel with and invade Portugal, which had been always under the peculiar protection of the Britiſh arms. Whether this quarrel was real or pretended, is not for me to decide. It certainly embarraſſed his Britannic majeſty, who was obliged to ſend thither armaments both by ſea and land.

The negociations for peace were now reſumed; and the enemy at laſt offered ſuch terms as the Britiſh miniſtry thought admiſſible and adequate on the occaſion. The defection of the Ruſſians from the confederacy againſt the king of Pruſſia, and his conſequent ſucceſſes, produced a ceſſation of arms in Germany, and in all other quarters; and on the 10th of February 1763, the definitive treaty of peace between his Britannic majeſty, the king of France, and the king of Spain, was concluded at Paris, and acceded to by the king of Portugal: March 10, the ratifications were exchanged at Paris. The 22d, the peace was ſolemnly proclaimed at Weſtminſter and London; and the treaty having on the 18th been laid before the parliament, it met the approbation of a majority of both houſes.

By this treaty the extenſive province of Canada, with the iſlands of Newfoundland, Cape Breton, and St. John, were confirmed to Great-Britain; alſo the two Floridas, containing the whole of the continent of North America, on this ſide the Miſſiſſippi, (except the Town of New Orleans, with a ſmall diſtrict round it), were ſurrendered to us by France and Spain, in conſideration of reſtoring to Spain the iſland of Cuba; and to France the iſlands of Martinico, Guadaloupe, Mariegalante, and Deſirade; and in conſideration of our granting to the French the two ſmall iſlands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, on the coaſt of Newfoundland, and quitting our pretenſions to the neutral iſland of St. Lucia, they yielded to us the iſlands of Grenada and the Grenadillas, and quitted their pretenſions to the neutral iſlands of St. Vincent, Dominica, and Tobago. In Africa we retained the ſettlement of Senegal, by which we nearly engroſſed the whole gum trade of that country; but we returned Goree, a ſmall iſland of little value. The article that relates to the Eaſt Indies was dictated by the directors of the Engliſh company; which reſtores to the French all the places they had at the beginning of the war, on condition that they ſhall maintain neither forts nor forces in the province of Bengal;

and the city of Manilla was reſtored to the Spaniards; but they confirmed to us the liberty of cutting logwood in the Bay of Honduras in America. In Europe, likewiſe, the French reſtored to us the iſland of Minorca, and we reſtored to them the iſland of Belleiſle. In Germany, after ſix years ſpent in marches and counter-marches, numerous ſkirmiſhes and bloody blattles, Great Britain acquired much military fame, but at the expence of thirty millions ſterling! As to the objects of that war, it was agreed that a mutual reſtitution and oblivion ſhould take place, and each party ſit down at the end of the war in the ſame ſituation in which they began it. And peace was reſtored between Portugal and Spain, both ſides to be upon the ſame footing as before the war.

The war, to which a period was now put, was the moſt brilliant, and diſtinguiſhed with the moſt glorious events in the Britiſh annals. No national prejudices, nor party diſputes then exiſted. The ſame truly Britiſh ſpirit by which the miniſter was animated, fired the breaſt of the ſoldier and ſeaman. The nation had then arrived at a pitch of wealth unknown to former ages; and the monied man, pleaſed with the aſpect of the times, confiding in the abilities of the miniſter, and courage of the people, cheerfully opened his purſe. The incredible ſums of 18, 19, and 22 millions, raiſed by a few citizens of London, upon a ſhort notice, for the ſervice of the years 1759, 1760, and 1761, were no leſs aſtoniſhing to Europe than the ſucceſs which attended the Britiſh fleet and armies in every quarter of the world.

But the peace, though it received the ſanction of a majority of both houſes of parliament, was far from giving univerſal ſatisfaction to the people. And from this period various cauſes contributed to occaſion a great diſcontent to prevail throughout the nation.

On the 30th of April, 1763, three of the king's meſſengers entered the houſe of John Wilkes, eſq. member of parliament for Ayleſbury, and ſeized his perſon, by virtue of a warrant from the ſecretary of ſtate, which directed them to ſeize "the authors, printers, and publiſhers of a ſeditious and treaſonable paper, intitled the North Briton, N° 45." The papers publiſhed under this title, ſeverely arraigned the conduct of the adminiſtration, and repreſented the earl of Bute as the favourite of the king, and the perſon from whom meaſures of government of a very pernicious tendency originated. The 45th number contained ſtrictures on the king's ſpeech. Mr. Wilkes was ſuſpected to be the author, but his name was not mentioned in the warrant by which he was apprehended. He objected to being taken into cuſtody by ſuch a warrant, alledging that it was illegal. However, he was forcibly carried before the ſecretaries of ſtate for examination, and they committed him cloſe priſoner to the Tower, his papers being alſo ſeized. He was likewiſe deprived of his commiſſion as colonel of the Buckinghamſhire militia. A writ of habeas corpus being procured by his friends, he was brought up to the court of Common Pleas, and the matter being there argued, he was ordered to be diſcharged. This affair made a great noiſe; people of all ranks intereſted themſelves in it; and Weſtminſter-hall reſounded with acclamations when he was ſet at liberty. An information, however, was filed againſt him in the court of King's Bench, at his majeſty's ſuit, as author of the North-Briton, No. 45. On the firſt day of the meeting of parliament, after theſe tranſactions, Mr. Wilkes ſtood up in his place, and made a ſpeech, in which he complained to the houſe, that in his perſon the rights of all the commons of England, and the privileges of parliament, had been violated by his impriſonment, the plundering of his houſe, and the ſeizure of his papers. The ſame day a meſſage was ſent to acquaint the houſe of commons with the information his majeſty had received, that John Wilkes, eſq. a member of that houſe,

houſe, was the author of a moſt ſeditious and dangerous libel, and the meaſures that had been taken thereupon. The next day a duel was fought in Hyde Park between Mr. Wilkes and Mr. Martyn, another member of parliament, and ſecretary of the treaſury, in which Mr. Wilkes received a dangerous wound in the belly with a piſtol bullet. Both houſes of parliament ſoon concurred in voting the North Briton, No. 45, to be a falſe, ſcandalous, and ſeditious libel, and ordered it to be burnt by the common hangman. This order was accordingly executed, though not without great oppoſition from the populace; and Mr. Harley, one of the ſheriffs who attended, was wounded, and obliged to take ſhelter in the manſion houſe. Another proſecution was commenced againſt Mr. Wilkes, for having cauſed an obſcene and profane poem to be printed, intitled, "An Eſſay on Woman." Of this, only twelve copies had been privately printed: and it did not appear to have been intended for publication. Finding, however, that he ſhould continue to be proſecuted with the utmoſt rigour, when his wound was in ſome degree healed, he thought proper to quit the kingdom. He was ſoon after expelled the houſe of commons; verdicts were alſo given againſt him, both on account of the North Briton and the Eſſay on Woman, and towards the end of the year 1764 he was outlawed. Sundry other perſons had been taken up for being concerned in printing and publiſhing the North Briton; but ſome of them obtained verdicts againſt the king's meſſengers for falſe impriſonment.

In the mean while, the earl of Bute, who had been made firſt lord of the treaſury, reſigned that office, and was ſucceeded by Mr. George Grenville. And under this gentleman's adminiſtration, an act was paſſed, ſaid to have been framed by him, which was productive of the moſt pernicious conſequences to Great Britain; "an act for laying a *ſtamp duty* in the Britiſh colonies of North America," which received the royal aſſent on the 22d of March 1765. Some other injudicious previous regulations had alſo been made, under pretence of preventing ſmuggling in America; but which in effect ſo cramped the trade of the colonies, as to be prejudicial both to them and the mother country. As ſoon as it was known in North America that the *ſtamp-act* was paſſed, the whole continent was kindled into a flame. As the Americans had hitherto been taxed by their own repreſentatives in their provincial aſſemblies, they loudly aſſerted, that the Britiſh parliament in which they were not repreſented, had no right to tax them. Indeed, the ſame doctrine had been maintained in the Britiſh parliament, when the ſtamp-act was under conſideration: on which occaſion it was ſaid, that it was the birth-right of the inhabitants of the colonies, even as the deſcendants of Engliſhmen, not be taxed by any but their own repreſentatives; that, ſo far from being actually repreſented, they were not even virtually repreſented there, as the meaneſt inhabitants of Great Britain are, in conſequence of their intimate connection with thoſe who are actually repreſented; and that therefore the attempt to tax the colonies in the Britiſh parliament was oppreſſive and unconſtitutional. On the other hand it was contended, that the colonies, who had been protected by Great Britain, ought, in reaſon and juſtice, to contribute towards the expence of the mother-country. "Thoſe children of our own planting," ſaid Mr. George Grenville, ſpeaking of the Americans, "nouriſhed by our indulgence, until they are grown to a good degree of ſtrength and opulence, and protected by our arms, will they grudge to contribute their mite to relieve us from the heavy load of national expence which we lie under."

When the ſtamp-act, printed by royal authority, reached the colonies, it was treated with every mark of indignation and contempt. Several acts of violence were likewiſe committed, with a view of preventing the

operations of the ſtamp-act; and aſſociations were alſo formed in the different colonies, whereby the people bound themſelves not to import or purchaſe any Britiſh manufactures, till that act ſhould be repealed. The inhabitants of the different colonies alſo eſtabliſhed committees from every colony to correſpond with each other, concerning the general affairs of the whole, and even appointed deputies from theſe committees to meet in CONGRESS at New York. They aſſembled together in that city, in October 1765, and this was the firſt congreſs held on the American continent.

Theſe commotions in America occaſioned ſo great an alarm in England, that the king thought proper to diſmiſs his miniſters. The marquis of Rockingham was appointed firſt lord of the treaſury; and ſome of his lordſhip's friends ſucceeded to the vacant places. In March 1766, an act was paſſed for repealing the American ſtamp-act. This was countenanced and ſupported by the new miniſtry; and Mr. Pitt, though not connected with them, yet ſpoke with great force in favour of the repeal. He alſo aſſerted, that the profits to Great Britain from the trade of the colonies, through all its branches, was two millions a year.

At the time that the ſtamp act was repealed, an act was alſo paſſed for ſecuring the dependence of the American colonies on Great Britain.

The marquis of Rockingham and his friends cnntinued in adminiſtration but a ſhort time; though, during their continuance in power, ſeveral public meaſures were adopted, tending to relieve the burdens of the people, and to the ſecurity of their liberties. But on the 30th of July, 1766, the duke of Grafton was appointed firſt lord of the treaſury, in the room of the marquis of Rockingham; the earl of Shelburne, ſecretary of ſtate, in the room of the duke of Richmond; Charles Townſhend, chancellor of the exchequer; and Mr. Pitt, now created earl of Chatham, was appointed lord privy ſeal; but that eminent ſtateſman's acceptance of a peerage, as it removed him from the houſe of commons, greatly leſſened his weight and influenee. Indeed, this political arrangement was not of any long continuance, and ſundry changes followed. Mr. C. Townſhend, who was a gentleman of great abilities and eloquence, made for ſome time a conſiderable figure both in the cabinet and in parliament; but on his death, the place of chancellor of the exchequer was ſupplied by Lord North, who afterwards became firſt lord of the treaſury, and obtained a great aſcendency in the adminiſtration.

In the year 1768, Mr. Wilkes, who had for a conſiderable time reſided in France, came over to England, and again became an object of public attention. The limits of our work will not permit us to enter into all the particulars reſpecting the proſecution of this gentleman, and the ſubſequent tranſactions concerning him: for theſe we muſt refer to our quarto edition. It is well known that verdicts were found againſt him on account of the North Briton, and for the indecent poem, "Eſſay on Woman." That he ſuffered a long impriſonment of two years, and paid two fines of 500l. each. That he diſplayed great abilities during his conteſts with the miniſtry, and was choſen member for the county of Middleſex, on the 28th of March, 1768. He was alſo again expelled for being the author of ſome prefatory remarks on a letter which he publiſhed, written by one of the ſecretaries of ſtate to the chairman of the quarter-ſeſſions at Lambeth, in which the ſecretary had recommended to the magiſtrates, previous to the unhappy affair of St. George's Fields, their calling in the aſſiſtance of the military, and employing them *effectually*, if there ſhould be occaſion. In the vote for his expulſion, his former offences, for which he was now ſuffering impriſonment, were complicated with this charge; and a new writ was ordered to be iſſued for the electing of a member for the county of Middleſex.

The rigour with which Mr. Wilkes was proſecuted, only increaſed his

popularity, which was alſo much augmented by the ſpirit and firmneſs which on every occaſion he diſplayed. Before his expulſion, he had been choſen an alderman of London: and on the 16th of February, 1769, he was re-elected at Brentford, member for the county of Middleſex, without oppoſition. The return having been made to the houſe, it was reſolved, that Mr. Wilkes, having been expelled that ſeſſion, was incapable of being elected a member of that parliament. The late election, therefore, was again declared void, and a new writ iſſued for another. He was once more unanimouſly re-elected by the freeholders, and the election was again declared void by the houſe of commons. After this, a new election being ordered, colonel Luttrel, in order to recommend himſelf to the court, vacated the ſeat which he already had in parliament, by the acceptance of a nominal place, and declared himſelf a candidate for the county of Middleſex. Though the whole weight of court intereſt was thrown into the ſcale in this gentleman's favour, yet a majority of near four to one appeared againſt him on the day of election; the numbers for Wilkes being 1143, and for Luttrel only 236. Notwithſtanding this, two days after the election, it was reſolved in the houſe of commons, that Mr. Luttrel ought to have been returned a knight of the ſhire for the county of Middleſex; and the deputy-clerk of the crown was ordered to amend the return, by eraſing the name of Mr. Wilkes, and inſerting that of colonel Luttrel in its place. The latter accordingly took his ſeat in parliament; but this was thought ſo groſs a violation of the rights of the electors, that it excited a very general diſcontent, and loud complaints were made againſt it in every part of the kingdom.

After the term of Mr. Wilkes's impriſonment was expired, in the year 1771, he was choſen one of the ſheriffs for London and Middleſex; and was afterwards again choſen member for the county of Miiddleſex in the ſubſequent parliament, and permitted quietly to take his ſeat there; in the year 1775, he executed the office of lord mayor of the city of London; and hath been ſince elected to the lucrative office of chamberlain of that city. In the year 1783, after the change of lord North's adminiſtration, at Mr. Wilkes's motion, all the declarations, orders, and reſolutions of the houſe of commons reſpecting his election for the county of Middleſex, were ordered to be expunged from the journals of that houſe, "as being ſubverſive of the rights of the whole body of electors of this kingdom." And it ſhould be remembered, that in conſequence of his manly and ſpirited conteſts with the government, general warrants were declared to be illegal, and an end was put to ſuch warrants, and to the unlawful ſeizure of an Engliſhman's papers by ſtate meſſengers.

After the repeal of the ſtamp-act, which was received with great joy in America, all things became quiet there: but unhappily new attempts were made to tax them in the Britiſh parliament, though, beſides the experience of the ill ſucceſs of the ſtamp-act, governor Pownal, a gentlemen well acquainted with the diſpoſition of the coloniſts, ſaid in the houſe of commons, in 1767, "It is a fact which this houſe ought to be appriſed of in all its extent, that the people of America, univerſally, unitedly, and unalterably, are reſolved not to ſubmit to any internal tax impoſed upon them by any legiſlature, in which they have not a ſhare by repreſentatives of their own election." He added, "this claim muſt not be underſtood as though it were only the pretences of party leaders and demagogues; as though it were only the viſions of ſpeculative enthuſiaſts; as though it were the mere ebullition of a faction which moſt ſubſide; as though it were only temporary or partial: – it is the cool, deliberate, principled maxim of every man of buſineſs in the country." The event verified the juſtice of theſe obſervations; yet the ſame year, an act

was

was paſſed, laying certain duties on paper, glaſs, tea, &c. imported into America, to be paid by the colonies, for the purpoſe of raiſing a revenue to the government. About two years after, it was thought proper to repeal theſe duties, excepting that on tea; but as it was not the *amount* of the duties, but the *right* of the parliament of Great Britain to impoſe taxes in America, which was the ſubject of diſpute, the repealing the other duties anſwered no purpoſe, while that on tea remained; which accordingly became a freſh ſubject of conteſt between the mother-country and the colonies.

In order to induce the Eaſt India company to become inſtrumental in enforcing the tea-duty in America, an act was paſſed, by which they were enabled to export their teas, duty free, to all places whatſoever. Several ſhips were accordingly freighted with teas for the different colonies by the company, who alſo appointed agents there for the diſpoſal of that commodity. This was conſidered by the Americans as a ſcheme calculated merely to circumvent them into a compliance with the revenue law, and thereby pave the way to an unlimited taxation. For it was eaſily comprehended, that if the tea was once landed, and in the cuſtody of the conſignees, no aſſociations, nor other meaſures, would be ſufficient to prevent its ſale and conſumption: and it was not to be ſuppoſed, that when taxation was eſtabliſhed in one inſtance, it would reſtrain itſelf in others. Theſe ideas being generally prevalent in America, it was reſolved by the coloniſts to prevent the landing of the tea-cargoes amongſt them, at whatever hazard. Accordingly three ſhips laden with tea having arrived in the port of Boſton in December, 1773, a number of armed men, under the diſguiſe of Mohawk Indians, boarded theſe ſhips, and in a few hours diſcharged their whole cargoes of tea into the ſea, without doing any other damage, or offering any injury to the captains or crews. Some ſmaller quantities of tea met afterwards with a ſimilar fate at Boſton, and a few other places; but in general, the commiſſioners for the ſale of that commodity were obliged to relinquiſh their employments, and the maſters of the tea veſſels, from an apprehenſion of danger, returned again to England with their cargoes. At New York, indeed, the tea was landed under the cannon of a man of war. But the perſons in the ſervice of government there were obliged to conſent to its being locked up from uſe. And in South Carolina ſome was thrown into the river, as at Boſton, and the reſt put into damp warehouſes, where it periſhed.

Theſe proceedings in America excited ſo much indignation in the government of England, that on the 31ſt of March, 1774, an act was paſſed for removing the cuſtom-houſe officers from the town of Boſton, and ſhutting up the port. Another act was ſoon after paſſed "for better regulating the government in the province of Maſſachuſetts Bay." The deſign of this act was to alter the conſtitution of that province as it ſtood upon the charter of king William; to take the whole executive power out of the hands of the people, and to veſt the nomination of the counſellors, judges, and magiſtrates of all kinds, including ſheriffs, in the crown, and in ſome caſes in the king's governor, and all to be removable at the pleaſure of the crown. Another act was alſo paſſed, which was conſidered as highly injurious, cruel, and unconſtitutional, empowering the governor of Maſſachuſetts Bay to ſend perſons accuſed of crimes there, to be tried in England for ſuch offences. Some time after, an act was likewiſe paſſed "for making more effectual proviſion for the government of the province of Quebec," which excited a great alarm both in England and America. By this act, a legiſlative council was to be eſtabliſhed for all the affairs of the province of Quebec, except taxation, which council was to be appointed by the crown, the office to be held during pleaſure; and his majeſty's Canadian Roman Catholic ſubjects were entitled to a place in it. The

French

French laws, and a trial without jury, were alſo eſtabliſhed in civil caſes, and the Engliſh laws, with a trial by jury, in criminal; and the popiſh clergy were inveſted with a legal right to their tithes from all who were of their own religion. No aſſembly of the people, as in other Britiſh colonies, was appointed, it being ſaid in the act, that it was then inexpedient: but the king was to erect ſuch courts of criminal, civil, and eccleſiaſtical juriſdiction, as he ſhould think proper. The boundaries of the province of Quebec were likewiſe extended, by the act, thouſands of miles at the back of the other colonies, whereby, it was ſaid, a government little better than deſpotic was eſtabliſhed throughout an extenſive country.

The meaſures of government reſpecting America had ſo univerſally exaſperated the coloniſts, that provincial or town meetings were held in every part of the continent, wherein they avowed their intentions of oppoſing, in the moſt vigorous manner, the meaſures of adminiſtration. Agreements were entered into in the different colonies, whereby the ſubſcribers bound themſelves in the moſt ſolemn manner, and in the preſence of God, to ſuſpend all commercial intercourſe with Great Britain, from the laſt day of the month of Auguſt, 1774, until the Boſton port bill, and the other late obnoxious laws, were repealed, and the colony of Maſſachuſetts Bay fully reſtored to its chartered rights. Other tranſactions ſucceeded; and the flame continued to increaſe and extend in America, till at length twelve of the colonies, including that whole extent of country which ſtretches from Nova Scotia to Georgia, had appointed deputies to attend a General Congreſs, which was to be held at Philadelphia, and opened the 5th of September, 1774. They met accordingly, and the number of delegates amounted to fifty-one; who repreſented the ſeveral Engliſh colonies of New Hampſhire (2 delegates), Maſſachuſetts Bay (4), Rhode Iſland and Providence plantations (2), Connecticut (3), New York (7), New Jerſey (4), Pennſylvania (7), the lower counties on Delaware (3), Maryland (4), Virginia (7), North Carolina (3), and South Carolina (5 delegates); Georgia afterwards acceded to the confederacy, and ſent deputies to the Congreſs.

They drew up a petition to the king, in which they enumerated their ſeveral grievances, and ſolicited his majeſty to grant them peace, liberty, and ſafety. They likewiſe publiſhed an addreſs to the people of Great Britain, another to the colonies in general, and another to the inhabitants of the province of Quebec. The congreſs broke up on the 26th of October, having reſolved, that another congreſs ſhould be held in the ſame place on the 10th of May following, unleſs the grievances of which they complained ſhould be redreſſed before that time; and they recommended to all the colonies to chooſe deputies, as ſoon as poſſible, for that purpoſe.

Shortly after theſe events, ſome meaſures were propoſed in the parliament of Great Britain, for putting a ſtop to the commotions which unhappily ſubſiſted in America. The earl of Chatham, who had been long in an infirm ſtate of health, appeared in the houſe of lords, and expreſſed in the ſtrongeſt terms his diſapprobation of the whole ſyſtem of American meaſures. He alſo made a motion, for immediately recalling the troops from Boſton, as a meaſure which ſhould be inſtantly adopted; urging, that an hour then loſt, in allaying the ferment in America, might produce years of calamity. He alleged that this conciliatory meaſure would be well-timed; and as a mark of affection and good will on our ſide, would remove all jealouſy and apprehenſion on the other, and inſtantaneouſly produce the happieſt effects to both. His lordſhip's motion was rejected by a large majority, 68 againſt 18; as was alſo a bill which he brought in ſoon after for ſettling the American troubles, by 61 to 32. The methods propoſed in the houſe of commons for promoting an accommodation, met alſo

alſo with a ſimilar fate. The number of his majeſty's troops was ordered to be augmented; and an act was paſſed for reſtraining the commerce of the New England colonies, and to prohibit their fiſhery on the banks of Newfoundland. A motion was, indeed, afterwards made in the houſe of commons, by lord North, firſt lord of the treaſury, for ſuſpending the exerciſe of the right of taxation in America, claimed by the Britiſh parliament, in ſuch of the colonies as ſhould, in their general aſſemblies, raiſe ſuch contributions as were approved of by the king in parliament. This motion was carried, and afterwards communicated to ſome provincial aſſemblies: but it was rejected by them as deluſive and unſatisfactory, and only calculated to diſunite them. The petition from the congreſs to the king was ordered by his majeſty to be laid before the parliament; whereupon Dr. Franklin, and two other American agents, ſolicited to be heard at the bar of the houſe of commons, on behalf of the colonies, in ſupport of that petition; but their application was rejected; it being ſaid, that the American congreſs was no legal aſſembly, and that therefore no petition could be received from it by the parliament with propriety.

It was on the 19th of April, 1775, that the firſt blood was drawn in this unhappy civil war, at Lexington and Concord in New England. This was occaſioned by general Gage ſending a body of troops to deſtroy ſome military ſtores that were at Concord. They ſucceeded in their deſign, but were extremely haraſſed, and forced to a quick retreat; 65 of them were killed, 170 wounded, and about 20 made priſoners. The Americans were computed not to have loſt more than 60, including killed and wounded. Immediately after, numerous bodies of the American militia inveſted the town of Boſton, in which general Gage and his troops were. In all the colonies, they prepared for war with the utmoſt diſpatch; and a ſtop was almoſt every where put to the exportation of proviſions. The continental congreſs met at Philadelphia on the 10th of May, 1775, as propoſed, and ſoon adopted ſuch meaſures as confirmed the people in their reſolutions to oppoſe the Britiſh government to the utmoſt. Among their firſt acts, were reſolutions for the raiſing of an army, and the eſtabliſhment of a large paper currency for its payment. They aſſumed the appellation of "The United Colonies of America," who were ſecurities for realiſing the nominal value of this currency. They alſo ſtrictly prohibited the ſupplying of the Britiſh fiſheries with any kind of proviſions; and to render this order the more effectual, ſtopt all exportation to thoſe colonies, iſlands, and places, which ſtill retained their obedience.

In the mean time, a body of provincial adventurers, amounting to about 240 men, ſurpriſed the garriſons of Ticonderoga and Crown Point. Theſe fortreſſes were taken without the loſs of a man on either ſide: and the provincials found in the forts a conſiderable number of pieces of cannon, beſides mortars, and ſundry kinds of military ſtores. However, the force of Great Britain in America, was now augmented, by the arrival at Boſton from England of the generals Howe, Burgoyne, and Clinton, with conſiderable reinforcements. But the continental congreſs were ſo little intimidated by this, that they voted, a few days after, that the compact between the crown and the people of Maſſachuſetts Bay was diſſolved, by the violation of the charter of William and Mary; and therefore recommended to the people of that province, to proceed to the eſtabliſhment of a new government, by electing a governor, aſſiſtants, and houſe of aſſembly, according to the powers contained in their original charter.

Our limits will not permit us here to relate, as in the quarto edition, all the particulars of this fatal war. We can only mention ſome of the moſt important tranſactions. On the 17th of June, 1775, a bloody action took place at Bunker's Hill, near Boſton, in which the king's troops had the ad-

vantage, but with the loſs of 226 killed, and more than 800 wounded, including many officers. But after this action, the Americans immediately threw up works upon another hill, oppoſite to it, on their ſide of Charles-town neck; ſo that the troops were as cloſely inveſted in that peninſula as they had been in Boſton. About this time the congreſs appointed George Waſhington, eſq. a gentleman of large fortune in Virginia, of great military talents, and who had acquired conſiderable experience in the command of different bodies of provincials during the laſt war, to be general and commander in chief of all the American forces. They alſo publiſhed a declaration, in which they ſtyled themſelves, "The repreſentatives of the United Colonies of North America," and aſſigned their reaſons for taking up arms. It was written in a very animated ſtrain, and contained the following paſſage: "In our own native land, in defence of the freedom that is our birth-right, and which we ever enjoyed till the late violation of it; for the protection of our property, acquired ſolely by the honeſt induſtry of our forefathers and ourſelves; againſt violence actually offered, we have taken up arms. We ſhall lay them down when hoſtilities ſhall ceaſe on the part of the aggreſſors, and all danger of their being renewed ſhall be removed, and not before." A ſecond petition to the king was voted by the congreſs, in which they earneſtly ſolicited his majeſty to adapt ſome method of putting a ſtop to the unhappy conteſt between Great Britain and the colonies. This petition was preſented by Mr. Penn, late governor, and one of the proprietors of Pennſylvania, through the hands of lord Dartmouth, ſecretary of ſtate for the American department; but Mr. Penn was ſoon after informed, that no anſwer would be given to it. The refuſal of the king to give an anſwer to this petition, from near three millions of people, by their repreſentatives, contributed exceedingly towards farther exaſperating the minds of the Americans. It was a raſh and unhappy determination of the cabinet council, and their advice to the king on this point was fatal, if not highly criminal. An addreſs now alſo was publiſhed by the congreſs to the inhabitants of Great Britain, and to the people of Ireland.

But as no conciliatory meaſures were adopted, hoſtilities ſtill continued; and an expedition was ſet on foot by the Americans againſt Canada, to which they were induced by an extraordinary commiſſion given to general Carleton, the governor of Canada; by which he was empowered to embody and arm the Canadians, to march out of the country for the ſubjugation of the other colonies, and to proceed even to capital puniſhments againſt all thoſe whom he ſhould deem rebels and oppoſers of the laws. The American expedition againſt Canada was chiefly conducted by Richard Montgomery, a gentleman of an amiable character, and of conſiderable military ſkill, on whom the congreſs conferred the rank of brigadier-general. On the 31ſt of December, Montgomery attempted to gain poſſeſſion of Quebec by ſtorm, but was killed in the firſt fire from a battery, as advancing in the front of his men: Arnold was alſo dangerouſly wounded, about ſixty of their men were killed and wounded, and 300 taken priſoners. The beſiegers immediately quitted their camp, and retired about three miles from the city, and the ſiege was for ſome months converted into a blockade. On general Carleton's receiving conſiderable reinforcements and ſupplies of proviſions from England, May, 1776, Arnold was obliged to make a precipitate retreat; Montreal, Chamblee, and St. John's were retaken, and all Canada recovered by the king's troops.

During theſe tranſactions, the royal army at Boſton was reduced to great diſtreſs for want of proviſions; the town was bombarded by the Americans, and general Howe, who now commanded the king's troops, which amount-

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ed to upwards of ſeven thouſand men, was obliged to quit Boſton, and embark for Halifax, leaving a conſiderable quantity of artillery and ſome ſtores behind. The town was evacuated on the 17th of March, 1776, and general Waſhington immediately took poſſeſſion of it. On the 4th of July following, the congreſs publiſhed a ſolemn declaration, in which they aſſigned their reaſons for withdrawing their allegiance from the king of Great Britain. In the name, and by the authority of the inhabitants of the united colonies, they declared that they then were, and of right ought to be, "Free and independent States;" that they were abſolved from all allegiance to the Britiſh crown, and that all political connection between them and the kingdom of Great Britain was totally diſſolved; and alſo that, as free and independent ſtates, they had full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, eſtabliſh commerce, and do all other acts and things, which independent ſtates may of right do. They likewiſe publiſhed articles of confederation and perpetual union between the united colonies, in which they aſſumed the title of "The United States of America."

In July 1776, an attempt was made by commodore ſir Peter Parker, and lieutenant-general Clinton, upon Charles-town in South Carolina, but this place was ſo ably defended by the Americans under general Lee, that the Britiſh commodore and general were obliged to retire, the king's ſhips having ſuſtained conſiderable loſs, and a twenty-eight gun ſhip, which run a-ground, was obliged to be burnt by the officers and ſeamen. However, a much more important and ſucceſsful attack againſt the Americans was ſoon after made under the command of general Howe, then joined with a large body of Heſſians, and a conſiderable number of Highlanders, ſo that his whole force was now extremely formidable. The fleet was commanded by his brother vice-admiral lord Howe; and both the general and the admiral were inveſted with a power, under the title of "Commiſſioners for granting peace to the Colonies," of granting pardon to thoſe who would lay down their arms. But their offers of this kind were treated by the Americans with contempt. An attack upon the town of New York ſeems to have been expected by the provincials, and therefore they had fortified it in the beſt manner they were able. On Long Iſland, near New York, the Americans had alſo a large body of troops encamped, and ſeveral works thrown up. General Howe firſt landed on Staten Iſland, where he met with no oppoſition; but early in the morning of the 22d of Auguſt, a deſcent was made by the Britiſh troops upon Long Iſland, and towards noon about fifteen thouſand were landed. They had greatly the advantage of the Americans, by their ſuperior ſkill and diſcipline, and being better provided with artillery, and every kind of military accommodation; and the American paſſes were far from being properly ſecured. Some actions and ſkirmiſhes happened between them during ſeveral ſucceſſive days; in which the Britiſh troops engaged their enemies with great ardour, and the Americans ſuffered exceedingly. Finding themſelves ſo much overpowered, they at length reſolved to quit the iſland, and general Waſhington came over from New York to conduct their retreat, in which he diſplayed great ability. In the night of the 29th of July, the American troops were withdrawn from the camp, and their different works, with their baggage, ſtores, and part of their artiliery, were conveyed to the water-ſide, embarked, and paſſed over a long ferry to New York, with ſuch extraordinary ſilence and order, that the Britiſh army did not perceive the leaſt motion, and were ſurpriſed in the morning at finding the American lines abandoned, and ſeeing the laſt of their rear-guard in their boats, and out of danger. The provincials had been ſo ſurrounded by the Britiſh troops,

and the latter had displayed such superior military skill, it was a subject of wonder that the greatest part of the American army should be able to effectuate their retreat. In the different actions previous to this, the loss of the Americans had been very considerable. Upwards of a thousand of them were taken prisoners, including three generals, three colonels, and many inferior officers; their number killed and wounded was computed to be still greater; they lost also five field pieces, and a quantity of ordnance was found in their different redoubts and forts on the island: whilst the whole loss of the British troops, if faithfully published, did not amount to more than three hundred killed and wounded.

New York was now soon abandoned, and the royal army obtained some other considerable advantages over the Americans, at the White Plains, taking Fort Washington, with a garrison of 2500 men, and Fort Lee with a great quantity of stores; which losses obliged the American general to retreat through the Jerseys to the river Delaware, a distance of ninety miles. Also on the 8th of December, general Clinton and sir Peter Parker obtained possession of Rhode-island; and the British troops covered the Jerseys. This was the crisis of American danger. All their forts taken, and the time of the greatest part of their army to serve, was expired, and the few that remained with their officers were in a destitute state, with a well clothed and disciplined army pursuing. Had general Howe pushed on at that time to Philadelphia, after Washington, it hath been maintained there would have been an end of the contest; but Providence directed otherwise; and the general's orders from home are said to have prevented him. This delay gave way for volunteer reinforcements of gentleman, merchant, farmer, tradesman, and labourer, to join general Washington, who, in the night of the 25th of December, amidst snow, storms, and ice, with a small detachment, crossed the Delaware, and surprised a brigade of the Hessian troops at Trenton. He took upwards of 900 of them prisoners, with whom he repassed the river; having also taken three standards, six pieces of brass cannon, and near one thousand stand of arms. Immediately after this surprise of the Hessians, and depositing them in safety, Washington recrossed the river to resume his former posts at Trenton. The British troops collected in force to attack him, and only waited for the morning to execute it; but the Americans, by a happy stroke of generalship, defeated the plan. Washington, to disguise his retreat in the night, ordered a line of fires in front of his camp, as an indication of their going to rest, and to conceal what was acting behind them. Then he moved completely from the ground with his baggage and artillery, and by a circuitous march of eighteen miles, reached Prince-town early in the morning, carried the British post at that place, and set off with near 300 prisoners on his return to the Delaware, just as the British troops at Trenton were under arms and proceeding to attack him, supposing him in his former position.

In the month of September 1777, two actions of some importance happened between the armies of general Howe and general Washington, in both of which the former had the advantage; and soon after, the city of Philadelphia surrendered to the king's troops. But an expedition, that had for some time been concerted, of invading the northern colonies by way of Canada, proved extremely unsuccessful. The command of this expedition had been given to lieutenant-general Burgoyne, a very experienced officer. He set out from Quebec with an army of near 10,000 men, and an extraordinary fine train of artillery, and was joined by a considerable body of the Indians. For some time he drove the Americans before him, and made himself master of Ticonderoga; but at length he encoun-

encountered ſuch difficulties, and was ſo vigorouſly oppoſed by the Americans under Gates and Arnold, that after two ſevere actions, in which great numbers fell, general Burgoyne and his army of 5,600 men were obliged to lay down their arms, October 17, 1777.

About the ſame time, ſir Henry Clinton and general Vaughan made a ſucceſsful expedition againſt the Americans up the North River; they made themſelves maſters of ſeveral forts; but the Americans complained, that in this expedition, and ſome others, the Britiſh troops had wantonly ſet fire to houſes and towns, particularly Eſopus, and carried on the war in a manner not uſual among civiliſed nations. Theſe devaſtations greatly increaſed the averſion of the Americans to the Britiſh government, which had already taken a deep root. General Howe ſoon after returned to England, and the command of the Britiſh army in America devolved upon general Clinton; but it was now found neceſſary to evacuate Philadelphia; and accordingly Clinton retreated with the army to New York, in June 1778. The Britiſh troops were attacked on their march by the Americans, but the retreat was ſo ably conducted, or the American general Lee behaved ſo ill, that their loſs did not amount to 300, killed and wounded.

During part of this unhappy war between Great Britain and the colonies, the latter received conſiderable ſupplies of arms and ammunition from France; and the French court ſeems to have thought this a favourable opportunity for leſſening the power of Great Britain. Some French officers alſo entered into the American ſervice; and on the 6th of February, 1778, a treaty of alliance was concluded at Paris, between the French king and the Thirteen United Colonies; and in this treaty it was declared, that the eſſential and direct end of it was "to maintain effectually the liberty, ſovereignty, and independence, abſolute and unlimited, of the United States of North America, as well in matters of government as of commerce."

The parliament and people of Great Britain now began to be in general alarmed at the fatal tendency of the American war: and in June, 1778, the earl of Carliſle, William Eden, and George Johnſtone, eſqrs. arrived at Philadelphia, as commiſſioners from his majeſty, to ſettle the diſputes between the mother-country and the colonies. But it was now too late: the terms, which, at an earlier period of the conteſt, would have been accepted with gratitude, were now rejected with diſdain. The congreſs refuſed to enter into any treaty with the Britiſh commiſſioners, if the independency of the United States of America was not previouſly acknowledged, or the Britiſh fleets and armies withdrawn from America. Neither of theſe requiſitions being complied with, the war continued to be carried on with mutual animoſity.

The conduct of France towards Great Britain, in taking part with the revolted colonies, occaſioned hoſtilities to be commenced between the two nations, though without any formal declaration of war on either ſide. On the 27th of June, 1778, the Licorne and La Belle Poule, two French frigates, were taken by admiral Keppel. Orders were immediately iſſued by the French court for making repriſals on the ſhips of Great Britain; and on the 27th of July, a battle was fought off Breſt between the Engliſh fleet, under the command of admiral Keppel, and the French fleet, under the command of the count d'Orvilliers. The Engliſh fleet conſiſted of 30 ſhips of the line, and the French 32, beſides frigates: they engaged for about three hours; but the action was not deciſive, no ſhip being taken on either ſide, and the French fleet at length retreated into the harbour of Breſt. Of the Engliſh, 133 were killed in the action, and 373 wounded; and the loſs of the French is ſuppoſed to have been very great. After the engagement, there was much murmuring throughout the Engliſh fleet, becauſe

becauſe a deciſive victory had not been obtained over the French; at laſt the blame was thrown upon ſir Hugh Palliſer, vice admiral of the blue, who was charged in a news-paper with miſconduct, and diſobedience of orders. Though no regular accuſation was brought againſt him, he required of admiral Keppel publicly to vindicate his conduct from the unfavourable reports that were propagated againſt him. This the admiral declined, which gave riſe to ſome altercation between them; and ſir Hugh Palliſer afterwards thought proper to exhibit to the board of admiralty (of which he was himſelf a member) articles of accuſation againſt admiral Keppel, though for many months after the action, he had continued to act under him, and profeſſed the greateſt reſpect to him. A mode of conduct ſo extraordinary was very generally and ſeverely cenſured, but the lords of the admiralty ordered a court-martial to be held for the trial of admiral Keppel. When the court-martial was held, admiral Keppel was acquitted in the moſt honourable manner; and ſir Hugh Palliſer's charge againſt him was declared by the court to be "malicious and ill-founded." But ſir Hugh Palliſer being afterwards tried by another court-martial, partly compoſed from ſome of the captains of his own diviſion, he likewiſe was acquitted; his diſobedience to the admiral's orders was conſidered as being occaſioned by the diſabled ſtate of his ſhip, a ſlight cenſure only was paſſed on him for not making the ſtate of his ſhip known to the admiral; and his conduct in other reſpects was declared to have been meritorious.

In the Eaſt Indies alſo an engagement happened between ſome Engliſh ſhips of war under the command of ſir Edward Vernon, and ſome French ſhips under the command of Monſ. de Tronjolly, on the 10th of Auguſt, in which the former obliged the latter to retire; and on the 17th of October following, Pondicherry ſurrendered to the arms of Great Britain. In the courſe of the ſame year, the iſland of St. Lucia, in the Weſt Indies, was taken from the French; but the latter made themſelves maſters of Dominica, and the following year they obtained poſſeſſion of the iſlands of St. Vincent's and Grenada. In September, 1779, the count D'Eſtaing arrived at the mouth of the river Savannah, with a large fleet, and a conſiderable body of French troops, to the aſſiſtance of the Americans. After dallying a month, the French and Americans made an united attack upon the Britiſh troops at Savannah, under the command of general Prevoſt. But the latter defended themſelves ſo well, that the French and Americans were driven off with great loſs, and D'Eſtaing ſoon after totally abandoned the coaſt of America. And at the cloſe of the year 1779, ſeveral French ſhips of war, and merchant ſhips, were taken in the Weſt Indies, by a fleet under the command of ſir Hyde Parker.

By the intrigues of the French court, Spain was at length brought to engage with France in the war againſt England; one of the firſt enterprifes in which the Spaniards engaged was the ſiege of Gibraltar, which was defended by the garriſon with great vigour. The naval force of Spain was alſo added to that of France, now become extremely formidable, and their combined fleets ſeemed for a time to ride almoſt triumphant in the Britiſh Channel. So great were their armaments, that the nation was under no inconſiderable apprehenſions of an invaſion; but they did not venture to make an experiment of that kind; and after parading for ſome time in the Channel, thought proper to retire to their own ports without effecting any thing. On the 8th of January 1780, ſir George Brydges Rodney, who had a large fleet under his command, captured ſeven Spaniſh ſhips and veſſels of war belonging to the royal company of Carraccas, with a number of trading veſſels under their

convoy; and in a few days after, the ſame admiral engaged, near Cape St. Vincent, a Spaniſh fleet, conſiſting of eleven ſhips of the line, and two frigates, under Don Juan de Langara. Four of the largeſt Spaniſh ſhips were taken, and carried into Gibraltar, and two others driven on ſhore, one of which was afterwards recovered by the Engliſh. A Spaniſh 70 gun ſhip, with 600 men, was alſo blown up in the action. In April and May three actions likewiſe happened in the Weſt Indies, between the Engliſh fleet under admiral Rodney, who was now arrived in that part of the world, (having previouſly thrown ſupplies into Gibraltar), and the French fleet under the count de Guichen; but none of theſe actions were deciſive, nor was any ſhip taken on either ſide. In July following, admiral Geary took twelve valuable French merchant ſhips from Port au Prince; but on the 8th of Auguſt, the combined fleets of France and Spain took five Engliſh Eaſt Indiamen, and fifty Engliſh merchant ſhips, bound for the Weſt Indies, which was one of the moſt complete naval captures ever made, and a very ſevere ſtroke to the commerce of Great Britain. Such a prize never before entered the harbour of Cadiz.

On the 4th of May, 1780, ſir Henry Clinton made himſelf maſter of Charles-town, South Carolina; and on the 16th of Auguſt, earl Cornwallis obtained a very ſignal victory over general Gates in that province, in which about a thouſand American priſoners were taken.

Soon after, major-general Arnold deſerted the ſervice of the congreſs, made his eſcape to New York, and was made a brigadier-general in the royal ſervice. Major André, who negotiated this deſertion, and was concerting meaſures with him for betraying the important poſt of Weſt Point into the hands of the Engliſh, was taken in the American lines, in his return to New York, and being conſidered as a ſpy, ſuffered death accordingly, much regretted for his amiable qualities.

The great expenſes of the American war, and the burthens which were thereby laid upon the people, naturally occaſioned much diſcontent in the nation, and ſeemed to convince perſons of all ranks of the neceſſity of public œconomy. Meetings were therefore held in various counties of the kingdom, at the cloſe of the year 1779, and the beginning of the year 1780, at which great numbers of freeholders were preſent, who agreed to preſent petitions to the houſe of commons, ſtating the evils which the profuſe expenditure of the public money occaſioned, &c.

Some trivial attempts were made in parliament to remedy the grievances ſtated in the petitions, but nothing important was effected: the miniſtry ſoon found means to maintain their influence in parliament; a diverſity of ſentiment occaſioned ſome diſunion among the popular leaders; the ſpirit which had appeared among the people by degrees ſubſided; and various cauſes at length conſpired to bring the greateſt part of the nation to a patient acquieſcence in the meaſures of adminiſtration.

The middle of the year 1780 was diſtinguiſhed by one of the moſt diſgraceful exhibitions of religious bigotry that had ever appeared in this country; eſpecially if it be conſidered as happening in an age, in which the principles of toleration were well underſtood, and very prevalent. An act of parliament had been lately paſſed "for relieving his majeſty's "ſubjects, profeſſing the Romiſh religion, from certain penalties and "diſabilities impoſed upon them in the 11th and 12th years of the reign "of king William III." This act was generally approved by men of ſenſe, and of liberal ſentiments, by whom the laws againſt Papiſts were juſtly deemed too ſevere. The act at firſt ſeemed to give little offence to perſons of any claſs in England, but in Scotland it excited much indignation, though it did not extend to that kingdom. Reſolutions were form-

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ed to oppoſe any law for granting indulgences to Papiſts in Scotland; and a Romiſh chapel was burned, and the houſes of ſeveral Papiſts demoliſhed in the city of Edinburgh. The contagion of bigotry at length reached England: a number of perſons aſſembled themſelves together, with a view of promoting a petition to parliament; for a repeal of the late act in favour of the Papiſts, and they aſſumed the title of the Proteſtant Aſſociation. It was then reſolved, in order to give the more weight to their petition, that it ſhould be attended by great numbers of petitioners in perſon; and a public advertiſement was iſſued for that purpoſe, ſigned by lord George Gordon.

Fifty thouſand perſons are ſuppoſed to have aſſembled with this view, on Friday the 2d of June, in St. George's Fields; from whence they proceeded, with blue cockades in their hats, to the houſe of commons, where their petition was preſented by their preſident. In the courſe of the day ſeveral members of both houſes of parliament were groſsly inſulted and ill-treated by the populace: and a mob aſſembled the ſame evening, by which the Sardinian chapel in Lincoln's-inn Fields, and another Romiſh chapel in Warwick-ſtreet, Golden-ſquare, were entirely demoliſhed. A party of the guards were then ſent for, to put a ſtop to the farther progreſs of theſe violences, and thirteen of the rioters were taken, five of whom were afterwards committed to Newgate, eſcorted by the military. On the Sunday following, another mob aſſembled, and deſtroyed a Popiſh chapel in Rope-maker's-alley, Moorfields. On Monday they demoliſhed a ſchool-houſe, and three dwelling-houſes, in the ſame place, belonging to the Romiſh prieſts, with a valuable library of books, and a maſs-houſe, in Virginia-ſtreet, Ratcliff-highway. They alſo deſtroyed all the houſehold furniture of ſir George Saville, one of the moſt reſpectable men in the kingdom, becauſe he had brought in the bill in favour of the Papiſts. On Tueſday great numbers again aſſembled about the parliament houſe, and behaved ſo tumultuouſly, that both houſes thought proper to adjourn. In the evening, a moſt daring and violent attempt was made to force open the gates of Newgate, in order to releaſe the rioters who were confined there: and the keeper having refuſed to deliver them, his houſe was ſet on fire, the priſon was ſoon in flames, and great part of it conſumed, though a new ſtone edifice of uncommon ſtrength; and more than three hundred priſoners made their eſcape, many of whom joined the mob. Now, a committee of the Proteſtant Aſſociation circulated hand-bills, requeſting all true Proteſtants to ſhow their attachment to their beſt intereſt, by a legal and peaceable deportment: but none of them ſtept forth, notwithſtanding their boaſted numbers, to extinguiſh the flames they had occaſioned: violence, tumult, and devaſtation ſtill continued. The Proteſtant Aſſociation, as they thought proper to ſtyle themſelves, had been chiefly actuated by ignorance and bigotry; and their new confederates were animated by the love of miſchief, and the hope of plunder. Two other priſons, the houſes of lord Mansfield, and ſir John Fielding, and ſeveral other private houſes, were deſtroyed the ſame evening. The following day, the King's Bench priſon, the New Bridewell in St. George's Fields, ſome popiſh chapels, ſeveral private houſes of the Papiſts, and other buildings, were deſtroyed by the rioters; ſome were pulled down, and others ſet on fire; and every part of the metropolis exhibited violence and diſorder, tumults and conflagrations.

During theſe extraordinary ſcenes, there was a ſhameful inactivity in the lord-mayor of London, and in moſt of the other magiſtrates of the metropolis, and its neighbourhood; and even the miniſtry appeared to be panic-ſtruck, and to be only attentive to the preſervation of their own

houſes, and of the royal palace. The magiſtrates, at the beginning of the riots, declined giving any orders to the military to fire upon the inſurgents; but at length, as all property began to be inſecure, men of all claſſes began to ſee the neceſſity of vigorous oppoſition to the rioters: large bodies of troops were brought to the metropolis from many miles round it; and an order was iſſued, by the authority of the king in council, "for the military to act without waiting for directions from the civil magiſtrates, and to uſe force for diſperſing the illegal and tumultuous aſſemblies of the people." The troops exerted themſelves with diligence in the ſuppreſſion of theſe alarming tumults, great numbers of the rioters were killed, many were apprehended, who were afterwards tried and executed for felony *, and the metropolis was at length reſtored to order and tranquillity. The manner in which theſe tumults were ſuppreſſed by the operations of the military, without any authority from the civil magiſtrate, however neceſſary from the peculiar circumſtances of the caſe, was thought to be a very dangerous precedent: and that an act of indemnity ought to have been paſſed, not only with regard to inferior perſons who had acted in the ſuppreſſion of theſe riots, but alſo with reſpect to the miniſtry themſelves, for the part they had taken in this tranſaction, in order to prevent its being eſtabliſhed as a precedent.

While the internal peace of the kingdom was diſturbed by theſe commotions, there appeared reaſon to apprehend an increaſe of its foreign enemies, by a rupture with Holland; loud remonſtrances were made by the Britiſh miniſter to the States-general, complaining that a clandeſtine commerce was carried on between their ſubjects and the Americans; that this was particularly the caſe at St. Euſtatia; and that the enemies of Great Britain were ſupplied with naval and military ſtores by the Dutch.

The war with Holland was commenced with great vigour: and that republic ſoon ſuffered a very ſevere ſtroke in the loſs of the iſland of St. Euſtatia, which was taken by the Engliſh on the 2d of February, 1781.

On the 5th of Auguſt the ſame year, a very bloody engagement was fought between an Engliſh ſquadron of ſhips of war, under the command of admiral Hyde Parker, and a Dutch ſquadron under the command of admiral Zoutman, off the Dogger Bank. On both ſides they fought with great gallantry, and by both of the contending ſquadrons the victory was claimed.

The war continued to be proſecuted with various ſucceſs; the French made themſelves maſters of the iſland of Tobago; and the Spaniards of Penſacola, and the whole province of Weſt Florida, with little effectual reſiſtance. Earl Cornwallis obtained a victory over the Americans under general Greene, at Guildford, in North Carolina, March 15, 1781; but it was a hard fought battle, and the loſs on both ſides conſiderable. Indeed the victory was productive of all the conſequences of a defeat; for three days after, lord Cornwallis was obliged to leave part of his ſick and wounded behind him to the care of his enemy, and to make a circuitous retreat of 200 miles to Wilmington before he could find ſhelter, and ſo left South Carolina entirely expoſed to the American general. The generals Philips and Arnold committed ſome ravages in Virginia, deſtroyed much ſhipping, and about 8000 hogſheads of tobacco; but none of theſe events at that time promiſed any ſpeedy termination of the war; they rather contributed to draw the attention of the Americans and the French at Rhode iſland to that quarter, where the next year the deciſive blow was ſtruck, which firmly eſtabliſhed American in-

* Lord George Gordon was himſelf committed to the Tower and tried for high treaſon, but acquitted.

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dependence. Lord Cornwallis's ſituation at Wilmington was very diſagreeable, and his force reduced ſo low that he could not think of marching to Charles-town by land; he turned his thoughts then to a co-operation in Virginia with Philips and Arnold, and began his march, April 25, 1781. In this central province, all the ſcattered operations of active hoſtility began at length to converge into a point, and the grand cataſtrophe of the American war opened to the world. By different reinforcements, lord Cornwallis's force amounted to above 7000 excellent troops, but ſuch was their plundering and devaſtations on their route, and the order of the Americans, his ſituation became at length very critical. Sir Henry Clinton, the commander in chief, was prevented from ſending thoſe ſuccours to him which he otherwiſe would have done, by his fears for New York, againſt which he apprehended Waſhington meditated a formidable attack. This American general played a game of great addreſs; as many of their poſts and diſpatches had been intercepted, and the letters publiſhed with great parade and triumph in the New York papers, to expoſe the poverty, weakneſs, and diſunion of the Americans: Waſhington ſoon turned the tables on the Britiſh commanders, and derived public advantage from this ſource of vexation and prejudice. He wrote letters to the ſouthern officers and others, informing them of his total inability to relieve Virginia, unleſs by a direct attack with the French troops on New York. He aſſerted it was abſolutely determined on, and would ſoon be executed. Theſe letters were intercepted (as was intended they ſhould) with others of the like kind from the French officers, and the project was ſucceſsful. Sir Henry Clinton was thus amuſed and deceived, and kept from forming any ſuſpicion of the real deſigns of the enemy.

By a variety of judicious military manœuvres, Waſhington kept New York and its dependencies in a continual ſtate of alarm for about ſix weeks, and then ſuddenly marched acroſs the Jerſeys and through Pennſylvania to the Head of Elk, at the bottom of the Cheſapeak, from which the light troops were conveyed by ſhipping down the bay, and the bulk of the army, after reaching Maryland by forced marches, were alſo there embarked, and ſoon joined the other body under the marquis de la Fayette. Sir Henry Clinton receiving information that the count de Graſſe was expected every moment in the Cheſapeak, with a large French fleet to co operate with Waſhington, now ſeriouſly attempted to reinforce lord Cornwallis, but without ſucceſs; for on the 5th of September, after a partial action of a few hours between the Britiſh fleet under admiral Graves, and that of the French under de Graſſe, Graves returned to New York to refit, and left the French maſters of the navigation of the Cheſapeak. Preſently the moſt effectual meaſures were adopted by general Waſhington for ſurrounding lord Cornwallis's army, and on the laſt of September it was cloſely inveſted in York Town, and at Glouceſter on the oppoſite ſide of the river, with a conſiderable body of troops on one ſide, and a large naval force on the other. The trenches were opened in the night between the 5th and 7th of October, with a large train of artillery. The works which had been raiſed by the Britiſh, ſunk under the weight of the enemies' batteries; the troops were much diminiſhed by the ſword and ſickneſs, and worn down by conſtant watching and fatigue, and all hope of relief failing, the 19th of October lord Cornwallis ſurrendered himſelf and his whole army by capitulation to general Waſhington, as priſoners of war *. Fifteen hundred ſeamen

* The American return made the number of priſoners 7,247, land and marine.

underwent the fate of the garriſon, but theſe, with the Guadaloupe frigate of 24 guns and a number of tranſports, were aſſigned to M. de Graſſe, as a return for the French naval power and aſſiſtance.

Such was the iſſue of the Virginian war. The capture of this army, under lord Cornwallis, was too heavy a blow to be ſoon or eaſily recovered; it threw a gloom over the whole court and cabinet at home, and put a total period to the hopes of thoſe who had flattered themſelves with the ſubjugation of the colonies by arms. The ſurrender of this ſecond Britiſh army may be conſidered as the cloſing ſcene of the continental war in America; for the immenſe expenſe of carrying it on ſo diſtant from the ſeat of preparations and power; the great accumulation of public debt it had brought upon the nation; the plentiful effuſion of human blood it had occaſioned; the diminution of trade, and the vaſt increaſe of taxes—theſe were evils of ſuch a magnitude, ariſing from this ever to be lamented conteſt, as could ſcarcely be overlooked even by the moſt inſenſible and ſtupid. Accordingly, on the firſt of March, 1782, after repeated ſtruggles in the houſe of commons, the houſe addreſſed the king, requeſting him to put a ſtop to any farther proſecution of ſo offenſive a war againſt the American colonies. This was a moſt important event; it rendered a change of meaſures and of councils abſolutely neceſſary, and diffuſed univerſal joy throughout the kingdom. Thoſe country gentlemen who had generally voted with the miniſtry, ſaw the dangers to which the nation was expoſed in an expenſive war with France, Spain, and Holland, without a ſingle ally; and feeling the preſſure of the public burdens, they at length deſerted the ſtandard of adminiſtration, and a complete revolution in the cabinet was effected, March 27th, 1782, under the auſpices of the marquis of Rockingham, who was appointed firſt lord of the treaſury.

The firſt buſineſs of the new miniſtry was the taking meaſures for effectuating a general peace. Mr. Grenville was inveſted with full powers to treat at Paris with all the parties at war, and was alſo directed to propoſe the independency of the Thirteen United Provinces of America in the firſt inſtance, inſtead of making it a condition of a general treaty. The commanders in chief in America were alſo directed to acquaint the congreſs with the pacific views of the Britiſh court, and with the offer to acknowledge the independency of the United States.

Peace every day became more deſirable to the nation. A ſeries of loſſes agitated the minds of the people. January 14th, 1782, the French took Nevis. On the 5th of February, the iſland of Minorca ſurrendered to the Spaniards; and on the 13th of the ſame month, the iſland of St. Chriſtopher's was given up to the French. The valuable iſland of Jamaica would ſoon probably have ſhared the ſame fate, had not the Britiſh fleet, under admiral Rodney, fallen in with that of the French under the Count de Graſſe, in their way to join the Spaniſh fleet at St. Domingo. The van of the French was too far advanced to ſupport the centre, and a ſignal victory was obtained over them. The French admiral, in the Ville de Paris of 110 guns (a preſent from the city of Paris to the French king), was taken, with two ſeventy-fours, and one of 64 guns; a 74 gun ſhip blew up by accident ſoon after ſhe was in our poſſeſſion, and another 74 ſunk during the engagement. A few days after, two more of the ſame fleet, of 64 guns each, were captured. By this victory of the 12th of April, the deſign againſt Jamaica was fruſtrated, and admiral Rodney's reputation and intereſt was greatly promoted.

May 18th, the Bahama iſlands ſurrendered to the Spaniards; but the credit

credit of the Britiſh arms was well ſuſtained at Gibraltar, under general Elliot, the governor, and their formidable attack on the 13th of September with floating batteries of 212 braſs canon, &c. in ſhips from 1400 to 600 tons burden, ended in diſappointment, and the deſtruction of all the ſhips and moſt of the aſſailants in them. The garriſon was relieved by lord Howe, in the month of October, who offered battle to the combined force of France and Spain, though twelve ſail of the line inferior. The military operations after this were few, and of little conſequence. Negapatnam, a ſettlement in the Eaſt Indies, and Trincomale on the iſland of Ceylon, were taken from the Dutch by the Britiſh forces; but the French ſoon receiving conſiderable ſuccours from Europe, took Cuddalore, retook Trincomale, forced the Britiſh fleet in ſeveral actions, but none deciſive, and enabled Hyder Ally to withſtand, with various ſucceſs, all the efforts of ſir Eyre Coote, and his troops.

The death of the marquis of Rockingham, on the 1ſt of July, occaſioned a violent commotion in the cabinet, and leſſened the hopes which had been formed of important national benefits from the new adminiſtration. Lord Shelburne ſucceeded the marquis as firſt lord of the treaſury, and it is ſaid, without the knowledge of his colleagues.

By the treaty of peace between Great Britain and France *, Great Britain ceded to France, all her poſſeſſions before the war, the iſland of Tobago, in the Weſt Indies, and the river of Senegal in Africa, with its dependencies and the forts on the river; and gave up a few diſtricts in the Eaſt Indies, as dependencies on Pondicherry, and Karical; it agreed alſo to reſtore the iſlands St. Lucia, St. Pierre, and Miquelon, and the iſland of Goree; with Pondicherry, Karical, Mahe, Chandernagore, and the comptoire of Surat, in the Eaſt Indies, which had been conquered from the French during the war. To prevent diſputes about boundaries in the Newfoundland fiſhery, it was agreed, that the French line for fiſhing ſhould begin from Cape St. John on the eaſtern ſide, and going round by the North, ſhould have for its boundary Cape Ray on the Weſtern ſide; and Great Britain renounced every claim by former treaties with reſpect to the demolition of Dunkirk. France on the other hand was to reſtore to Great Britain the iſlands of Grenada, and the Grenadines, St. Chriſtopher's, St. Vincent, Dominica, Nevis, and Monſerrat; and guarantied Fort James, and the river Gambia, agreeing that the gum trade ſhould remain in the ſame condition as before the war, 1755. The allies of each ſtate in the Eaſt Indies were to be invited to accede to the pacification, but if they were averſe to peace, no aſſiſtance on either ſide was to be given to them.

By the treaty with Spain, Great Britain gave up to that power Eaſt Florida, and alſo ceded Weſt Florida and Minorca, which Spain had taken during the war. To prevent all cauſes of complaint and miſunderſtanding for the future, it was agreed that Britiſh ſubjects ſhould have the right of cutting and carrying away logwood in the diſtrict lying between the river Wallis or Bellize, and Rio Hondo, taking the courſe of the ſaid rivers for unalterable boundaries. Spain agreed to reſtore the iſlands of Providence, and the Bahamas to Great Britain, but they had been retaken before the peace was ſigned.

In the treaty with the United States of America, the king of Great Britain acknowledged New Hampſhire, Maſſachuſetts Bay, Rhode Iſland and Providence Plantations, Connecticut, New York, New Jerſey, Pennſylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South

* Preliminary articles, ſettled January 20, 1783.

Carolina, and Georgia, to be *free, ſovereign, and independent ſtates*; and for himſelf, his heirs and ſucceſſors, relinquiſhed all claims to the government, propriety, and territorial rights of the ſame, and every part thereof. To prevent all diſputes in future on the ſubject of boundaries between theſe ſtates and the remaining provinces to Great Britain, lines were very minutely drawn, which will be noticed in the proper place, and ſome favourable clauſes were obtained for the loyaliſts. The navigation of the Miſſiſippi to remain open to both parties, as alſo the Newfoundland fiſheries.

In the treaty with the Dutch, great difficulties aroſe: but at length it was ſtipulated, that Great Britain ſhould reſtore Trincomale in the iſland of Ceylon, but the French had already taken it; and that the Dutch ſhould yield to us the town of Negapatnam, with its dependencies in the Eaſt Indies, with liberty to treat for its reſtitution on the point of an equivalent.

Thus a period was put to a moſt calamitous war, in which Great Britain loſt the beſt part of her American colonies, and many thouſand valuable lives, and expended or ſquandered nearly 150 millions of money. The terms of the peace were, to many, a ſubject of great regret; but had the war continued, it would have been neceſſary to have borrowed annually 17 millions and a half, by which a million *per annum* would have been added to the taxes, and 25 millions at leaſt to the capital of the public debt, according to the uſual modes of funding. The addreſs of thanks for the peace was carried in the houſe of lords, by a majority of 72 to 59, but loſt in the houſe of commons by a majority of 224 to 208.

The majority of the commons thus enliſting under the banner of the *famous alition leaders*, Mr. Fox and lord North, plainly indicated a miniſterial revolution to be near at hand, unleſs the cabinet would call a new parliament. As they did not, the peace-makers were obliged to withdraw from power. The two gentlemen juſt mentioned were made ſecretaries of ſtate, and the duke of Portland firſt lord of the treaſury, on April the 2d, 1783. All plans of reformation in public offices, and for preſerving the nation, which lord Shelburne propoſed, ſeemed now to be dropt. Every thing went on juſt as the coalition adminiſtration pleaſed, till Mr. Fox brought into parliament his famous bill for new regulating the government of the Eaſt India company, and their commercial affairs and territories; a plan of which bill, its progreſs and fate, we have already given in our account of that trading company. This bill being rejected in the houſe of lords, on December 17, by a majority of 19, occaſioned a great ferment in the cabinet, and in both houſes of parliament.

A royal meſſage was ſent between 12 and 1 of the morning of the 19th of December, to deſire the two ſecretaries to ſend the ſeals of their office immediately; and Mr. Pitt ſucceeded the duke of Portland as firſt lord of the treaſury, bringing in his friends into the reſpective departments, which formed the tenth adminiſtration ſince his majeſty's acceſſion.

Some leading independent gentlemen (as they ſtyled themſelves) interpoſed to unite the contending parties, which had filled parliament and the country with diſtraction, and tended to the ruin of all; but their endeavours to form what they called a firm, efficient, extended and united adminiſtration, proved unſucceſsful.

Perſons of the moſt diſtinguiſhed and independent character in the houſe of commons, and in the kingdom, now wiſhed that a diſſolution had taken place weeks before, even at the firſt forming of the coalition.

At laſt, after ſtrong and repeated conteſts between the two parties, on the 25th of March, 1784, a proclamation was iſſued for diſſolving the preſent

preſent parliament, and calling a new one, agreeable to the deſires and addreſſes of a great part of the kingdom. Juſt at that critical period, the great ſeal was ſtolen from the houſe of the lord chancellor, which occaſioned many ſuſpicions, as if done by more than ordinary felons; but nothing farther appeared, and a new ſeal was preſently made. On the 18th of May the new parliament aſſembled, and the commons choſe Mr. Cornwall, the ſpeaker of the late houſe, for their preſent ſpeaker. The next day, his majeſty addreſſed them from the throne. A very feeble oppoſition was made to the addreſs of thanks in the houſe of lords, and it ſoon appeared that the appeal to the people had turned out greatly in Mr. Pitt's favour; for on May 24th, on a diviſion of the houſe for an addreſs to the king's ſpeech, the numbers for it without any alteration or amendment, were 282 againſt 114.

Mr. Pitt brought in his famous Eaſt India bill the 5th of July, the leading particulars of which we have given in our account of that company, with a few obſervations upon it.

The buſineſs of parliamentary reform having been taken up by Mr. Pitt, he accordingly introduced a ſpecific plan for that purpoſe on the 18th of April, 1785. The plan was to give one hundred members to the popular intereſt of the kingdom, and to extend the right of election to above one hundred thouſand perſons, who, by the exiſting proviſions of law, were excluded from it. This acceſſion to the popular intereſt was to be principally obtained by the ſuppreſſion of decayed boroughs, and the transfer of their repreſentatives to the counties; ſo that the number of the houſe of commons would remain the ſame.—After a debate of conſiderable length, it was rejected by a majority of 74; the noes being 248, and the ayes 174.

Among the various meaſures agitated by parliament in 1786, the plan for eſtabliſhing a ſinking fund, and employing a million annually for reducing the national debt, engaged their moſt immediate attention. This million is produced by the yearly income of the ſtate exceeding the permanent level of its expenditure, by a ſum of 900,000l. which may be increaſed to a million by means in no wiſe burthenſome to the people. This meaſure, which had the concurrence of every man who deſired the emancipation of the ſtate from the accumulated load of debt and taxes, was carried into a law, which created commiſſioners for carrying the purpoſes of this valuable act into execution.

We come now to a very important tranſaction of the preſent times, the impeachment of Mr. Warren Haſtings, late governor-general of Bengal.

This important buſineſs is ſtill depending, notwithſtanding the ſtrenuous endeavours of the friends of Mr. Haſtings to maintain, at the opening of the preſent parliament, that the impeachment had naturally fallen to the ground by the diſſolution of the laſt; a doctrine highly dangerous to the liberties of this country, by which it will be in the power of the crown to put a ſtop to any proſecution againſt the greateſt enemies to the ſtate; and the houſe of commons had the public ſpirit to reſolve that the trial of Mr. Haſtings ſhall ſtill proceed.

The conſolidation of the cuſtoms and exciſe was the moſt important circumſtance deſerving of attention in the year 1787. This was a meaſure of incredible labour and detail, as well as of infinite advantage to commerce, by facilitating and ſimplifying the intricacies attendant on mercantile tranſactions, and the payment of duties; a regulation which was duly and permanently effected.

The trade carried on by this country, and other European nations, upon the

the coaſt of Africa, for the purpoſe of purchaſing negro-ſlaves, to be employed in the cultivation of the Weſt India iſlands, and certain parts of the continent of America, does not appear, till of late years, to have been conſidered with that general attention which ſuch a practice might have been expected to excite; a practice ſo abhorrent in its nature to the mild principles of modern policy and manners. The firſt public attempt, we believe, that was made to put a ſtop to this traffic, was by the Quakers of the ſouthern provinces of America. In Great Britain the ſame ſociety appears alſo to have taken the lead, and, after the example of their American brethren, preſented a ſimilar petition to the parliament of this kingdom.

The cauſe ſoon after became extremely popular. A great number of pamphlets were publiſhed upon this ſubject: ſeveral eminent divines recommended it from the pulpit, and, in printed diſcourſes and petitions, were preſented to the legiſlature from the two univerſities, and from ſeveral of the moſt conſiderable towns and corporations in the kingdom.

His majeſty's miniſters thought it proper to inſtitute an inquiry, before a committee of the privy council, into the facts and allegations contained in the repreſentations of both parties upon the ſubject. The firſt public notice that was taken of the ſubject, was an information communicated by Mr. Wilberforce, ſoon after the meeting of parliament, of his intention to bring forward a meaſure reſpecting the ſlave-trade. That gentleman being much indiſpoſed, Mr. Pitt came forward on the 9th of May, 1788, in the name of his friend, and moved the following reſolution, "That this houſe will, early in the next ſeſſion of parliament, proceed to take into conſideration the circumſtances of the ſlave-trade, complained of in the petitions preſented to the houſe, and what may be fit to be done thereupon;" which was unanimouſly carried. After this, on the 21ſt of May, ſir William Dolben moved the houſe for leave to bring in a bill to regulate the tranſportations of the natives of Africa to the Britiſh colonies in the Weſt Indies *.

By the bill now propoſed, the number of ſlaves to be tranſported in any ſhip was to be regulated according to its bulk or tonnage, allowing nearly one ton to each man. This was only intended as a temporary relief till ſome more permanent expedient could be deviſed by the legiſlature. Having paſſed through the commons, it was carried up to the lords, where it alſo paſſed, after having received ſeveral amendments; ſome of which being thought to interfere with the privileges of the lower houſe, a new bill was brought in, which paſſed both houſes, and received the royal aſſent.

The year 1788 being the hundredth anniverſary of the glorious revolution in 1688, the fourth of November being the birth day of king William, the inſtrument under providence who completed that event, and the fifth of this month being the anniverſary of his landing, were obſerved by many

* That there was a neceſſity for adopting this propoſition will moſt clearly appear from the facts which were proved in the courſe of the debate. It appeared that five feet ſix inches in length and ſixteen inches in breadth, was the ſpace allowed on an average to each ſlave. The lower deck of the veſſels was entirely covered with bodies, and the ſpace between the floor of that deck and the roof above, which ſeldom amounted to five feet eight inches, was divided by a platform alſo covered with bodies. Five perſons in every hundred periſhed, at the loweſt computation, in a voyage of ſix weeks continuance, which, according to the moſt accurate eſtimates of human life, was ſeventeen times the uſual rate of mortality. It was indeed much more, becauſe in the eſtimate of mortality perſons of every age were included, while in an African voyage the aged were entirely excluded, and few infants were admitted. Such was the ruinous nature of the trade in the moſt favourable circumſtances; but, in the voyage to the more diſtant parts of Africa, the mortality was ſtated to be twice as great; and conſequently, thirty-four perſons periſhed at the loweſt eſtimation, for one that would have died in the courſe of nature

ſocieties

ſocieties in London, and other parts of the kingdom, not only with feſtivity, but with devotion and thankſgiving.

In the ſpace of only four years, which had elapſed ſince the complete triumph of the ſovereign and the nation over the "Coalition," Great Britain, under the conduct of a miniſter, who had not yet attained his thirtieth year, had riſen from a ſtate of unexampled depreſſion, to her ancient ſuperiority among the European kingdoms.

From this ſtate of public felicity, the nation was rudely and ſuddenly awoke, in the autumn of 1788, by the reports of his majeſty being attacked with an unexpected and dangerous illneſs. The preciſe nature of it was for ſeveral days unaſcertained and unexplained, even to thoſe whoſe reſidence near the court ſhould have enabled them to obtain early and authentic information. Mean while, Fame augmented the evil, and the death of the ſovereign was believed to have either already taken place or to be imminent and inevitable.

Time, however, gradually divulged the truth, and changed the apprehenſions of the nation for the ſituation of the king. His diſorder was underſtood to have fallen upon the brain, and to have produced, as might be expected, a temporary privation of reaſon. A ſpecies of interregnum in fact took place; though unaccompanied by any of thoſe circumſtances which uſually characteriſe and accompany that unfortunate ſtate. The kingdom, anxious, and with eyes directed towards their ſovereign, betrayed no ſymptoms of confuſion, anarchy, or civil commotion. The firſt miniſter continued to exerciſe, by a general ſubmiſſion and conſent, the powers delegated to him before the king's indiſpoſition; and the political machine, well conſtructed, and properly organiſed, ſuſtained no derangement or injury whatſoever from this ſhock, except thoſe inſeparably connected with delay in the tranſactions or negotiations pending with foreign courts.

The two houſes of parliament, in conſequence of the preceding prorogation, met in a few days ſubſequent to theſe extraordinary events. The general agitation and curioſity, even if they had not been aided by other emotions of hope and fear, of ambition, and of public duty, would alone have produced a numerous attendance. Mr. Pitt opened the ſubject of their meeting in a very conciſe and pathetic manner; lamented the occaſion, expreſſed his hope that the cauſe would ſpeedily be removed, and in purſuance of that idea, adviſed an immediate adjournment of a fortnight. As ſoon as the adjournment was at an end, Mr. Fox laid claim to the vacant ſceptre in the name and on the behalf of the heir apparent, as belonging and devolving to him of right.

Mr. Pitt demanded the diſcuſſion and deciſion of ſo great and leading a principle, which led to concluſions unlimited and undefined, as well as ſubverſive of the tenure on which a king of England had originally received his crown; and parliament, rouſed to a ſenſe of the neceſſity of declaring itſelf ſolely competent to fill the vacant throne, proceeded to that great act without circumlocution or delay; and having pronounced upon this important preliminary, then decided that the prince of Wales ſhould be invited and requeſted to accept the regency under certain limitations.

The month of December elapſed in theſe conteſts, and the year 1789 commenced under the moſt gloomy preſages. Mutual aſperity and reproach embittered every debate. No appearances of convaleſcence or recovery, ſo ardently anticipated by the nation, had yet manifeſted themſelves in the malady of the king.

A ſecond examination of the phyſicians who had attended his majeſty during the courſe of his diſorder, which took place before a committee of the houſe of commons, and which was certainly not conducted on the

part of oppoſition with either delicacy or judgment, tended to throw very little light on the great object of public inquiry; the probable duration of this afflicting malady.

A very ſhort period, probably not exceeding three days, muſt have completed the bill, which was to declare the incapacity of the ſovereign to conduct the national affairs, and to transfer the ſceptre, though with diminiſhed influence, to his ſon. The members of adminiſtration were on the point of reſigning their charges, and the new miniſtry, already ſettled, prepared to enter on office: while the Engliſh people, fondly attached by every ſenſe of loyalty and affection to their monarch, as well as from gratitude and eſteem to the firſt miniſter, in dejection and ſilence looked on, and ſaw the government transferred to others, who, whatever abilities they might collectively poſſeſs, certainly neither merited nor enjoyed the general approbation and confidence.

But the term of interregnum and misfortune was now arrived; and the impending calamity which had menaced England with all the evils of a regency, far more to be deprecated and dreaded than thoſe from which the country had eſcaped in 1784, was ſuddenly and unexpectedly diſſipated. The diſorder, under which the king had ſuffered during three months, and whoſe violence had hitherto appeared to baffle all medical ſkill and exertion, gradually, but rapidly ſubſided. Sanity of mind and reaſon reſumed their ſeat, and left no trace of their temporary ſubverſion. Time confirmed the cure, and reſtored to his ſubjects a prince, rendered ſupremely and peculiarly dear to them by the recent proſpect and apprehenſion of his loſs. The viſion of a regency faded and diſappeared, as the ſovereign came forward to public view, and was totally extinguiſhed by his reſumption of all the regal functions. The demonſtrations of national joy far exceeded any recorded in the Engliſh annals, and were probably more real and unfeigned than ever were offered on ſimilar occaſions. It was not only that a king, beloved and reſpected, was recovered from the moſt afflicting of all ſituations incident to humanity, and enabled to reaſcend the throne; but ſentiments of diſapprobation and of general condemnation, affixed to the meaſures and conduct of the oppoſite party, heightened the emotions of pleaſure, by a compariſon with that ſtate from which the kingdom had been ſo fortunately delivered. No efforts of deſpotiſm, or mandates of arbitrary power, could have produced the illuminations which not only the capital, but almoſt every town and village, throughout the kingdom, exhibited in teſtimony of its loyalty; and theſe proofs of attachment were renewed, and even augmented, on the occaſion of his majeſty's firſt appearance in public, and his ſolemn proceſſion to St. Paul's (on the 23d of April, 1789), to return thanks to Heaven for his recovery.

Whilſt the ancient government of France was entirely overthrown, and a revolution the moſt unexpected was effected, it is difficult to imagine a picture of more complete ſerenity than England preſented. The period which is compriſed between the months of May 1789 and 1790, affords few materials for hiſtory, drawn from the interior events of the time. England, at peace with all the world, in the boſom of repoſe, ſaw her commerce and manufactures extend, her credit augment, and her name excite reſpect among the moſt diſtant nations; while many of the great ſurrounding European kingdoms were either involved in foreign war, or deſolated by domeſtic troubles. In this happy ſituation, a ſtorm unexpectedly and ſuddenly aroſe from a quarter, where, it would ſeem, that no foreſight or precautions could have anticipated the danger. Among the new and unexplored paths of commerce, which the ſpirit of a diſcerning and adventurous people had attempted to open ſince the peace of 1783, were particularly two, which

appeared

appeared to promiſe the moſt beneficial returns. The firſt was a whale fiſhery, ſimilar to that which had been carried on for ages near the coaſt of Greenland; but transferred to the ſouthern hemiſphere, near the extremity of Patagonia, and in the ſtormy ſeas which ſurrounded Cape Horn; as well as in the Pacific Ocean. In the courſe of a few years, this branch of trade had augmented rapidly, and was found on trial to afford very important advantages; nor had it received any impediments from the vague pretenſions of the Spaniſh crown to the ſovereignty of the ſhores waſhed by that ocean, which was the ſcene of their exertions.

The ſecond of theſe enterpriſes, original in its own nature, able in its conception, bold in its execution, and having no precedent for its guidance, was directed to countries and to objects almoſt as much unknown to geographical as to commercial knowledge or experience.

The north-weſt coaſt of America, the part of the earth to which this embarkation was deſtined, extending northward from California and New Albion to the Frozen Sea, had been partly explored, and faintly traced by captain Cook; but much remained for future enterpriſe and induſtry to accompliſh, before this diſcovery could be converted to any purpoſe of public utility. He had, however, aſcertained the exiſtence of the continent; and he had received from the barbarous natives, with whom he eſtabliſhed a ſpecies of barter, ſome valuable ſpecimens of furs, in exchange for European commodities of a far inferior nature.

The hope of procuring a conſiderable quantity of theſe rare and coſtly ſkins, for the ſale of which a very advantageous market preſented itſelf at Canton in China, was the leading inducement to the adventurers who engaged in the expedition.

Animated by theſe views, and having received the moſt affirmative marks of the protection of government previous to their departure, five ſhips were fitted out from London in 1785, and the two ſucceeding years. Four of theſe veſſels, after doubling Cape Horn, arrived ſafely on the north-weſt coaſt of America. The ſanguine expectations which had been entertained, of effecting a lucrative exchange of commodities with the natives, were fully and ſpeedily realiſed. Cargoes of the fineſt furs were procured, and ſold to the Chineſe, even under great commercial diſcouragements and pecuniary impoſitions, at ſo high a price, as amply to reimburſe, and enrich the adventurers. Other attempts of a ſimilar nature were made from Bengal; and two veſſels were ſucceſſively diſpatched from the Ganges to the ſame coaſt in the year 1786. A factory was eſtabliſhed at Nootka Sound, a port ſituated in the fiftieth degree of northern latitude, on the ſhore of America. Poſſeſſion of it was ſolemnly taken in the name of the ſovereign and crown of England: amicable treaties were concluded with the Chiefs of the neighbouring diſtricts; and a tract of land was purchaſed from one of them, on which the new proprietors proceeded to form a ſettlement, and to conſtruct ſtorehouſes. Every thing bore the appearance of a riſing colony, and each year opened new ſources of commerce and advantage.

Although individuals, occupied in exertions of this private nature, could not be expected to extend their views or efforts to objects of public utility, yet ſome further information was collaterally and incidentally acquired reſpecting the continent of America, in the courſe of their voyages. It is even pretended that a ſloop, named the "Waſhington," navigated for ſome hundred miles along a vaſt number of iſlands ſcattered in a ſea which interſects that continent in a north-eaſt direction, and though the accounts hitherto received or tranſmitted, of this extraordinary and intereſting fact, are not either ſo minute, or ſo accurate, as by any means

to

to entitle them to be implicitly received, yet they appear to be not totally deſtitute of foundation or probability.

That, upon every principle of the law of nations, upon the eſtabliſhed uſage in all ſimilar caſes, and as being the firſt ſettlers, the Britiſh adventurers had an undoubted title to the place in queſtion, is beyond diſpute. Notwithſtanding this, in the month of May 1789, a Spaniſh ſhip of war from St. Blas in Mexico, called the Princeſſa, commanded by M. Martinez, and mounting 20 guns, anchored there. The various avocations of trade having led the greater part of the perſons employed at this ſettlement to different parts of the coaſt, the only Engliſh trading ſhip remaining in the Sound was the Iphigenia. The Princeſſa was ſoon joined by a Spaniſh ſnow of 16 guns; and, for ſome time, mutual civilities paſſed between the Spaniards and Engliſh. Theſe, however, were at length interrupted, by an order being ſent to capt. Douglas (the commander of the Iphigenia) to come on board of the Princeſſa; when he was informed by M. Martinez, that he had the king of Spain's orders to ſeize all veſſels which he might find upon that coaſt, and that he (capt. Douglas) was his priſoner. In conſequence of this, M. Martinez took poſſeſſion of the Iphigenia in the name of his Catholic Majeſty, and conveyed the priſoners on board the Spaniſh ſhip, where they were ironed. M. Martinez alſo took poſſeſſion of the ſettlement, hoiſted the Spaniſh flag, and proceeded to erect various buildings, on which he employed, together with his own men, ſome of the crew of the Iphigenia. He afterwards permitted captain Douglas to reſume the command of his ſhip; and on repreſenting that he had been ſtript of his merchandiſe, and other ſtores, M. Martinez gave him a ſmall ſupply of ſtores and proviſion (for which he took bills on the owners,) by means of which about a fortnight after he was at firſt detained, he was enabled to proceed to China.

Shortly afterwards, the Engliſh veſſels, the North Weſt America, the Argonaut and the Princeſs Royal, arriving ſeparately at Nootka, from their trading voyages, were captured by M. Martinez, their crews were made priſoners, and their cargoes ſeized. After ſome detention, the crew of the North Weſt America were ſent to China, the two other veſſels with their crews were ſent to St. Blas in Mexico, and ſome Chineſe, who had been brought to the ſettlement by our people, were detained and employed as labourers.

Of the North Weſt America, ſent to China, no authentic account has been received; but on the arrival of the two veſſels at St. Blas, a repreſentation of their caſe having been made to the Spaniſh Governor, the ſhips were reſtored (on the officers giving ſecurity to indemnify the governor, ſhould it be proved they were lawful prizes) the crews were furniſhed with proviſions, ſtores, and money, to enable them to reſume their voyage.

Of theſe tranſactions only a partial, vague, and uncircumſtantial account was known by his majeſty's miniſters till the 30th of April 1790, when captain Mears preſented his memorial to Mr. Grenville. This paper indeed conveyed an intelligence of a very different nature from that which had been previouſly received. Within one week after the affair was communicated, the moſt active and formidable preparations were made, a poſitive demand of preliminary ſatisfaction and reſtitution was ſent to Madrid, and the people of England were called upon to adopt the national vindication. The firſt communication of this buſineſs to the public was by his majeſty's meſſage to parliament on the 5th of May.

An attention to the honour of their country made it therefore neceſſary for our miniſters to call upon the court of Spain itſelf to give direct ſatisfaction for an injury committed by an officer acting under its immediate commiſſion, and grounded on its pretenſions of an excluſive right to the

whole

whole continent of America. To this it was neceſſary for his Catholic majeſty to acknowledge that ſuch an injury had been committed, and this was moſt expreſsly declared and ſigned by count de Florida Blanca, in the name and by the order of his Catholic majeſty, at Madrid, the 24th July 1790. The acknowledgment of the injury was an expreſſion which implied a conceſſion that the Court of Spain had no right to uſe force in preventing Britiſh ſubjects from viſiting the coaſts in queſtion for the purpoſes of trade and ſettlement.

The public were waiting with painful anxiety for the determination of the objects of the depending negotiation; deprecating indeed the dreadful alternative of appealing to the ſword for the vindication of our rights; yet ſatisfied of the juſtice of our cauſe, and confidently looking forward to an honourable and happy termination of a conteſt, originating in the violent proceedings and unfounded claims of the court of Spain, when the agreeable news arrived that a convention was agreed upon between his Britannic majeſty and the king of Spain, and ſigned at the Eſcurial the 28th of October, 1790, by their plenipotentiaries Alleyne Fitz-Herbert, eſq. on the part of his Britannic majeſty, and by count de Florida Blanca on that of his Catholic majeſty; which was finally ratified by the court of Spain, and exchanged with Mr. Fitz-Herbert againſt his majeſty's ratification on the 22d of November, 1790, at the palace of the Eſcurial, by his Catholic majeſty's miniſter.

To defray the expenſe attending the naval and military armaments, Mr. Pitt propoſed to raiſe not merely the intereſt of the debt recently incurred, but to extinguiſh the principal itſelf, in the ſpace of four years; though amounting to about three millions ſterling. The effect of ſo judicious and provident a meaſure, which muſt evince the reſources of the country which adopted it, will be felt through every kingdom of Europe.

But though Great Britain was thus happily reſcued from war in this quarter of the globe, accident or ambition involved our Indian poſſeſſions in conteſt and in blood. At ſo remote a diſtance, it is difficult to judge accurately of cauſes and effects; but, as nearly as a diligent inquiry has enabled us to collect the truth, we ſhall give it in our hiſtorical narrative of that country, under which it will more naturally fall.

The cauſe of toleration received, in the year 1791, an acceſſion which muſt be peculiarly grateful to the friends of freedom. It is remarkable, that, notwithſtanding the radical freedom of our conſtitution, no nation in Europe has been more jealous of their religious eſtabliſhment, and ſcarcely have the Roman Catholic ſtates themſelves loaded with a more oppreſſive weight of civil penalties thoſe who diſſented in religious opinion. It has for almoſt half a century been the taſk of the legiſlature to root out, gradually and cautiouſly, from the code of our laws, thoſe diſgraceful ſtatutes. They are not yet entirely removed, but in proportion as the peaceful influence of philoſophy ſhall extend over the minds of men, we have little doubt but all parties will ſee the abſurdity of ſacrificing the cardinal virtue Charity at the ſhrine of vain ſpeculation; and, as the fears and jealouſies of mankind ſhall ſubſide, in the courſe of a few years every trace of perſecution will fade away. As the Romiſh church was the grand object of terror in the firſt ages of reformation, it was ſcarcely matter of ſurpriſe that our ſtatute-book ſhould be loaded with the moſt rigorous and ſanguinary edicts directed againſt the profeſſors of that obnoxious faith; and though in the year 1780 ſome of theſe were removed, yet in the year 1791, in a well-known book, Burn's Eccleſiaſtical Law, not leſs than ſeventy pages were to be found, entirely occupied with the bare enumeration of the penal ſtatutes in force againſt the Roman catholics. Among theſe

were

were ſome of the moſt ſanguinary nature—It was high treaſon and death to make a convert to the Roman Catholic faith—Severe penalties were enacted on papiſts for hearing maſs, by ſome ſtatutes, and by others they were compelled to attend the eſtabliſhed worſhip, however contrary to their conſciences. That ſuch laws ſhould have been framed in times of difficulty and danger, in times when the church of Rome flouriſhed in all the vigour of temporal power, and urged her authority by all the rigours of perſecution, and all the artifices of bigotry, is not ſurpriſing; it is only ſurpriſing that they ſhould have been ſuffered to remain in force for centuries of peace and tranquillity, when the power of the pope is annihilated even in countries profeſſing his religion, and when all the obnoxious principles of that religion are diſavowed by its profeſſors. A reform in the penal ſtatutes became the more neceſſary, ſince, in the courſe of the year 1790, a large body of catholic diſſenters had formerly proteſted againſt the temporal power of the pope, againſt his aſſumed authority of releaſing men from their civil obligations, or diſpenſing with the ſacredneſs of oaths.

It was upon theſe principles, and ſupported by theſe arguments, that Mr. Mitford moved, on the 21ſt of February, 1791, for a committee of the whole houſe to enable him "to bring in a bill to relieve, upon conditions and under reſtrictions, perſons called proteſting catholic diſſenters, from certain penalties and diſabilities, to which papiſts, or perſons profeſſing the popiſh religion, are by law ſubject." This bill, Mr. Mitford added, would be ſimilar to that which had paſſed in Ireland ſome years ſince; and as no ill conſequences had reſulted in a country where the Roman catholics were ſo much more numerous than in this, he ſhould hope the houſe would ſee no impropriety in the propoſition. The houſe entered upon the ſubject with a liberality which does them infinite honour, and the bill proceeded through its ſeveral ſtages without oppoſition.

The rights of juries had long been in an indefinite and indeterminate ſtate, particularly in the caſe of libels; and diſputes diſgraceful in themſelves, and injurious to the adminiſtration of juſtice, had frequently ariſen between the court and the jury, between the judges and the counſel; even among the profeſſors of the law, a difference of opinion had long exiſted. While the herd of mere technical practitioners earneſtly ſupported the indefeaſible authority of the bench, that oracle of conſtitutional juriſprudence lord Camden, Mr. Erſkine, and many others of the greateſt eminence, held the rights of an Engliſh jury in too ſacred a light to ſuffer the great conſtitutional principle on which that inſtitution was founded, to be undermined by the fallacious doctrine of precedents.

On the 25th of May, in this year, Mr. Fox preſented his bill for removing doubts with reſpect to the rights of juries in criminal caſes. The bill ſets forth that juries, in caſes of libels, ſhould have a power of judging the whole matter, and of finding a general verdict of guilty or not guilty. With a ſlight oppoſition from the legal profeſſion, it completed its progreſs through the houſe of commons. In the houſe of lords, where the influence of the law is more predominant, it experienced a very different reception, and was ſtrongly oppoſed. However, in the following year, this great conſtitutional point was at laſt decided by the lords and commons, that JURIES ARE JUDGES OF BOTH THE LAW AND THE FACT.

Early in the ſeſſions of 1791, Mr. Wilberforce made a motion, in a committee of the houſe of commons appointed for receiving and examining evidence on the ſlave-trade, "that the chairman be inſtructed to move for leave to bring in a bill to prevent the further importation of African negroes into the Britiſh colonies." Although this queſtion was ſupported with great ability and eloquence by Mr. Francis, Mr. W. Smith, the chan-

cellor of the exchequer, and Mr. Fox, yet it was negatived by a majority of 75. One immediate conſequence of this was the eſtabliſhment of a company for the expreſs purpoſe of cultivating Weſt India and other tropical productions at Sierra Leone, on the coaſt of Africa, the bill for chartering which was introduced on the 28th of March, by Mr. Thornton.

In purſuance of a meſſage from his majeſty, a bill was brought into parliament for ſettling the conſtitution of Canada, a matter of great importance, and long in agitation. The province is to be divided into two governments, called Upper and Lower Canada; and it is hoped that this diviſion will put an end to the debates between the old French inhabitants, and the Britiſh ſettlers, as each will have a majority in their own department. A council and a houſe of aſſembly are intended for each government: the members of the council being ſuch for life, and reſerving power to the Britiſh ſovereign of annexing to certain honours an hereditary right of ſitting in the council. The taxes to be levied and diſpoſed of by the legiſlature of each diviſion; and the preſent laws and ordinances to remain till altered by the new legiſlature.

On the 28th of March, 1791, a meſſage was delivered from his majeſty, importing that the endeavours which he had uſed, in conjunction with his allies, to effect a pacification between Ruſſia and the Porte, not having proved ſucceſsful, his majeſty judged it requiſite, in order to add weight to his repreſentations, to make ſome further augmentation of his naval force. In conſequence of a majority in ſupport of this meaſure, a very large naval armament was prepared. Our fleet, collected to ſupport the cauſe of the Turks againſt Ruſſia, amounted, in April, to thirty-three ſhips of the line; and after maintaining this large equipment for four months, at an enormous expenſe, it was, at laſt, diſmiſſed. The propoſed Ruſſian war was certainly moſt unpopular, and the reception which the propoſition of it met with in the houſe of commons, ought perhaps to have induced the immediate dereliction of a meaſure, which, however meritorious its intentions might be, was not crowned by the public favour. No valuable purpoſe was attained by this armament. Ruſſia has yielded little or nothing more than her firſt propoſal; and we have not ſo effectually aſſiſted the Turks, as to have any claim to their gratitude. The miniſter's popularity was conſiderably injured by theſe expenſive and injudicious preparations; in which Europe was aſtoniſhed to behold, for the firſt time, Britain acting in a ſubſervient capacity to the narrow and intereſted politics of Pruſſia.

Soon after the riſing of the parliament, the nation was diſgraced by a ſeries of outrages and violences, as unprovoked and wanton, as have ever darkened the annals of a civiliſed people, and which, for the ſpace of four days, ſpread terror and alarm through the large opulent town of Birmingham, and the adjacent country.

Concerning the French revolution much difference of ſentiment prevailed among the higher orders of ſociety in this country, and much heat and ill temper the diſcuſſion of that ſubject appeared unneceſſarily to provoke.—The ſame cauſe of diſcord was found to pervade the inferior claſſes, and conſiderable pains were taken to excite the paſſions and prejudices of the people againſt the aſſertors of Gallic liberty. On the other hand, a conſiderable body of the Whig party in Great Britain rejoiced in the emancipation of a neighbouring nation, and flattered themſelves that they ſaw in the eſtabliſhment of the French conſtitution, not only the annihilation of deſpotiſm in that country, but the commencement of a new ſyſtem of politics in Europe, the baſis of which was peace, happineſs, and mutual concord.

In moſt of the larger towns in Great Britain, aſſociations were formed for the celebration of that event, by anniverſary dinners on the 14th of July; but the oppoſite party were not indifferent ſpectators of theſe proceedings. The populace were inflamed by the moſt injurious inſinuations conveyed in newſpapers and pamphlets: the friends of the French revolution. were (certainly falſely as to the majority) ſtigmatiſed as determined republicans; and the act of joining in a convivial meeting on the odious 14th of July was repreſented as an attempt to overturn the Britiſh conſtitution in church and ſtate.

Notwithſtanding the pains which had been taken to depreciate theſe aſſociations, the meeting in London conſiſted of not leſs than 1,500 reſpectable gentlemen, many of them literary characters of high reputation.—As, however, rumours had been ſpread to the diſadvantage of the meeting, and the populace appeared to collect in a tumultuous manner round the Crown and Anchor Tavern, where the meeting was held, the company diſperſed at an early hour.

At Birmingham the cauſes of diſcord were more numerous than even in London. A violent animoſity had ſubſiſted for years between the high church party and the diſſenters of that place; and the religious controverſies which took place between Dr. Prieſtley and ſome of the clergy of Birmingham greatly contributed to increaſe this animoſity.

In ſuch circumſtances, it is not ſurpriſing that the ignorant part of the inhabitants ſhould confound the cauſe of the French revolution with that of the diſſenters, eſpecially ſince the majority of that perſuaſion have, ſince the Revolution in 1688, been firmly attached to the whig ſyſtem, and ſince Dr. Prieſtley, whom the populace conſidered as at the head of the diſſenters there, had diſtinguiſhed himſelf by oppoſing the celebrated pamphlet of Mr. Burke. From the publication indeed of the doctor's pamphlet on that ſubject, it is ſaid that the profane habit of drinking "damnation and confuſion to the preſbyterians," at the convivial entertainments in the town, was viſibly increaſed.

A feſtive meeting in commemoration of the French revolution was projected at Birmingham on Thurſday the 14th of July; and on the preceding Monday ſix copies of a moſt inflammatory and ſeditious hand-bill, propoſing the French revolution as a model to the Engliſh, and exciting them to rebellion, were left by ſome perſon unknown in a public houſe. As the contents of this hand-bill were pretty generally circulated, they cauſed ſome ferment in the town; the magiſtrates thought it proper to offer a reward of 100 guineas for diſcovering the author, printer, or publiſher of the obnoxious paper; and the friends of the meeting intended for the 14th, thought it neceſſary at the ſame time to publiſh an advertiſement, expliſitly denying the ſentiments and doctrines of the ſeditious hand-bill, and diſavowing all connexion with its author or publiſhers.

The views and intentions of the meeting having, however, been much miſrepreſented, the majority of the gentlemen, who projected it, thought it adviſable to relinquiſh the ſcheme; accordingly notice was given to that effect; but the intention was revived, and the company met at the appointed time to the amount of between eighty and ninety. The ingenious Mr. Keir, well known for his great attainments in chemiſtry and other branches of philoſophy, and a member of the eſtabliſhed church, was placed in the chair.

The gentlemen had ſcarcely met, before the houſe was ſurrounded by a tumultuous crowd, who teſtified their diſapprobation by hiſſes and groans, and

and by the ſhout of "church and king," which became the watch-word on this occaſion. At five o'clock the company diſperſed; and ſoon afterwards the windows in the front of the hotel were demoliſhed, notwithſtanding the appearance and interference of the magiſtrates.

Dr. Prieſtley did not attend the feſtival, but dined at home, at Fairhill, with a friend (the celebrated Mr. A. Walker, the philoſopher) from London. After ſupper they were alarmed with the intelligence that the mob were aſſembled at the new diſſenting meeting-houſe (Dr. Prieſtley's), and were threatening both the doctor and his houſe. The rioters ſoon ſet the meeting on fire, and nothing remained that could be conſumed. The old meeting-houſe ſhared almoſt a ſimilar fate. After this they proceeded to Dr. Prieſtley's houſe, the doctor and his family alleving juſt had time to eſcape to a ſmall diſtance, where they could diſtinctly hear every ſhout of the mob, and the blows of the inſtruments which were uſed to break down the doors. The whole of the doctor's library, his valuable philoſophical apparatus, his manuſcripts and papers, were deſtroyed by the mob. The next day this infatuated multitude demoliſhed the elegant manſion of Mr. Ryland, where, finding a profuſion of liquor, a dreadful ſcene of intoxication enſued; and ſeveral of the wretched rioters periſhed in the cellars by ſuffocation, or by the falling in of the roof. The country reſidence of Mr. Taylor, the houſes of Mr. Hutton (the ingenious hiſtorian of Birmingham), of Mr. Humphrey, of Mr. Ruſſel, and ſeveral others, were deſtroyed by the reſiſtleſs fury of the mob, who continued their depredations until Sunday night, when three troops of the fifteenth regiment of light dragoons arrived. The town was then illuminated, and all was acclamation and joy.—Of the unfortunate and infatuated wretches, who were taken in the act of rioting, five were tried at Worceſter, and one was found guilty and executed. At Warwick twelve were tried; but only four received ſentence of death, of whom one was reprieved.—For the honour of our country we indulge the earneſt hope that the diſgraceful ſcenes which were acted at Birmingham in 1791, will never be revived; but that while the continent of Europe is unhappily drenched in human blood, this iſland will remain as conſpicuous for its harmony, order, and tranquillity, as for its conſtitutional freedom and national proſperity.

The marriage of the duke York with the princeſs-royal of Pruſſia took place on the 29th of September, this year, at Berlin; and on the 25th of October they arrived in England, and were received with public joy and applauſe. The Pruſſian monarch gave to the princeſs a portion of 100,000 crowns. A formal renunciation is made in favour of the male ſucceſſion, of all right of inheritance ariſing from the houſe of Pruſſia and Brandenburgh, as uſually done on the marriages of the Pruſſian princeſſes. The ſum of 4000l. ſterling is annually aſſigned for pin-money and other expenſes; and 8000l. annually of jointure, in caſe of the death of her huſband. In conſequence of this union, and to enable his royal highneſs to live in a ſtyle ſuitable to his exalted ſtation, and to the high rank of the illuſtrious perſonage to whom he was allied, parliament have voted the ſum of 18,000l. per annum upon his royal highneſs. His majeſty has alſo ſettled an additional 7000l. per annum upon him, out of his Iriſh revenue, which, with 12,000l. per annum which he before enjoyed, make the ſum of 37,000l. per annum. The revenues ariſing from the biſhoprick of Oſnaburgh are ſaid to amount to about 17,000l. per annum.

On the 2d of April, 1792, the houſe of commons, in a committee of the whole houſe on the African ſlave trade, came to a reſolution, 230 againſt 85, for the gradual abolition. This ſubject was ſupported by the

united talents of Mr. Wilberforce, Mr. Fox, and Mr. Pitt, for the immediate abolition. Mr. Dundas took a middle courſe, and argued for the gradual relinquiſhment of a traffic, which every good man muſt abhor, as degrading and debaſing our fellow-creatures to a level with beaſts. This bill, however, met with a different reception in the houſe of lords.

The royal proclamation on the 21ſt of May, 1792, againſt ſeditious writings, which was followed by orders for the embodying the militia of the kingdom, engaged a conſiderable ſhare of the public attention. It had the intended effect, and excited numerous addreſſes, teſtifying the loyalty of the people.

Genealogical List of the Royal Family of Great Britain.

George-William-Frederic III. born June 4, 1738; proclaimed king of Great Britain, France, and Ireland, and elector of Hanover, October 26, 1760; and married, Sept. 8, 1761, to the princeſs Sophia-Charlotte, of Mecklenburgh Strelitz, born May 16, 1744, crowned September 22, 1761, and now have iſſue:

1. George-Auguſtus-Frederic, prince of Wales, born Auguſt 12, 1762.
2. Prince Frederic, born Auguſt 16, 1763, elected biſhop of Oſnaburgh, February 27, 1764, created duke of York and Albany, November 7, 1784. K. G. and K. B. married Sept. 29, 1791, Frederica-Charlotta-Ulrica-Catherina, Princeſs Royal of Pruſſia.
3. Prince William-Henry, born Auguſt 21, 1765, created duke of Clarence. K. G. and K. T.
4. Charlotte-Auguſta-Matilda, Princeſs Royal of England, born September 29, 1766.
5. Prince Edward, born November 2, 1767.
6. Princeſs Auguſta-Sophia, born November 8, 1768.
7. Princeſs Elizabeth, born May 27, 1770.
8. Prince Erneſt-Auguſtus, born June 5, 1771.
9. Prince Frederic-Auguſtus, born January 27, 1773.
10. Prince Adolphus-Frederic, born February 24, 1774.
11. Princeſs Mary, born April 25, 1776.
12. Princeſs Sophia, born November 3, 1777.
13. Princeſs Amelia, born Auguſt 7, 1783.

Iſſue of the late prince of Wales by the princeſs Auguſta of Saxe Gotha, now living:

1. Her royal highneſs Auguſta, born Auguſt 11, 1737; married the hereditary prince (now duke) of Brunſwick Lunenburgh, January 16, 1764.
2. His preſent majeſty.
3. Prince William-Henry, duke of Glouceſter, born November 25, 1743.

WALES.

THOUGH this principality is politically included in England, yet, as it has diſtinction in language and manners, I have, in conformity with common cuſtom, aſſigned it a ſeparate article.

EXTENT

Extent and Situation.

Miles.			Degrees.
Length 130	}	between	{ 51 and 54 North latitude.
Breadth 96	}		{ 2,41 and 4,56 West longitude.

Area in square miles, 7011.

Name and language.] The Welch, according to the best antiquaries, are descendants of the Belgic Gauls, who made a settlement in England about fourscore years before the first descent of Julius Cæsar, and thereby obtained the name of Galles or Walles (the G and W being promiscuously used by the ancient Britons), that is, Strangers. Their language has a strong affinity with the Celtic or Phœnician, and is highly commended for its pathetic and descriptive powers by those who understand it.

Boundaries.] Wales was formerly of greater extent that it is at present, being bounded only by the Severn and the Dee; but after the Saxons had made themselves masters of all the plain country, the Welch, or ancient Britons, were shut up within more narrow bounds, and obliged gradually to retreat westward. It does not however appear that the Saxons ever made any farther conquests in their country than Monmouthshire and Herefordshire, which are now reckoned part of England. This country is divided into four circuits. See England.

Climate, soil, and water.] The seasons are pretty much the same as in the Northern parts of England, and the air is sharp, but wholesome. The soil of Wales, especially towards the North, is mountainous, but contains rich vallies, which produce crops of wheat, rye, and other corn. Wales contains many quarries of free-stone and slate, several mines of lead, and abundance of coal-pits. This country is well supplied with wholesome springs; and its chief rivers are the Clywd, the Wheeler, the Dee, the Severn, the Elwy, and the Alen, which furnish Flintshire with great quantities of fish.

Mountains.] It would be endless to particularise the mountains of this country. Snowdon, in Caernarvonshire, and Plinlimmon, which lies partly in Montgomery and partly in Cardiganshire, are the most famous; and their mountainous situation greatly assisted the natives in making so noble and long a struggle against the Roman, Anglo-Saxon, and Norman powers.

Vegetable and animal productions by sea and land.] In these particulars Wales differs little from England. Their horses are smaller, but can endure vast fatigue, and their black cattle are small likewise, but excellent beef, and their cows are remarkable for yielding large quantities of milk. Great numbers of goats feed on the mountains. As for the other productions of Wales, see England and Scotland. Some very promising mines of silver, copper, lead, and iron, have been discovered in Wales. The Welch silver may be known by its being stamped with the ostrich feathers, the badge of the prince of Wales.

Population, inhabitants, manners, and customs.] The inhabitants of Wales are supposed to amount to about 300,000, and though not in general wealthy, they are provided with all the necessaries, and many of the conveniencies of life. The land-tax of Wales brought in some years ago about forty-three thousand seven hundred and fifty-two pounds a year. The Welch are, if possible, more jealous of their

liberties than the Engliſh, and far more iraſcible, but their anger ſoon abates; and they are remarkable for their ſincerity and fidelity. They are very fond of carrying back their pedigrees to the moſt remote antiquity; but we have no criterion for the authenticity of their manuſcripts, ſome of which they pretend to be coeval with the incarnation. It is however certain, that great part of their hiſtory, eſpecially the eccleſiaſtical, is more ancient, and better atteſted, than that of the Anglo-Saxons. Wales was formerly famous for its bards and poets, particularly Thalieſſin, who lived about the year 450, and whoſe works were certainly extant at the time of the Reformation, and clearly evince, that Geoffrey of Monmouth was not the inventor of the hiſtory which makes the preſent Welch the deſcendants of the ancient Trojans. This poetical genius ſeems to have influenced the ancient Welch with an enthuſiaſm for independency, for which reaſon Edward I. is ſaid to have made a general maſſacre of the bards; an inhumanity which was characteriſtical of that ambitious prince. The Welch may be called an unmixed people, as may be proved by their keeping up the ancient hoſpitality, and their ſtrict adherence to ancient cuſtoms and manners. This appears even among gentlemen of fortune, who in other countries commonly follow the ſtream of faſhion. We are not however to imagine, that many of the nobility and gentry of Wales do not comply with the modes and manner of living in England and France. All the better ſort of the Welch ſpeak the Engliſh language, though numbers of them underſtand the Welch.

RELIGION.] I have already mentioned the maſſacre of the Welch clergy by Auguſtine, the popiſh apoſtle of England, becauſe they would not conform to the Romiſh ritual. Wales, after that, fell under the dominion of petty princes, who were often weak and credulous. The Romiſh clergy inſinuated themſelves into their favour, by their pretended power of abſolving them from crimes; and the Welch, when their ancient clergy were extinct, conformed themſelves to the religion of Rome. The Welch clergy, in general, are but poorly provided for; and in many of the country congregations they preach both in Welch and Engliſh. Their poverty was formerly a vaſt diſcouragement to religion and learning, but the meaſures taken by the ſociety for propagating chriſtian knowledge have in a great degree removed the reproach of ignorance from the poorer ſort of the Welch. In the year 1749, a hundred and forty-two ſchoolmaſters were employed to remove from place to place for the inſtruction of the inhabitants: and their ſcholars amounted to 72,264. No people have diſtinguiſhed themſelves more, perhaps, in proportion to their abilities, than the Welch have done by acts of national munificence. They print at a vaſt expenſe Bibles, Common-prayers, and other religious books, and diſtribute them gratis to the poorer ſort. Few of their towns are unprovided with a free-ſchool.

The eſtabliſhed religion in Wales is that of the church of England, but the common people in many places are ſo tenacious of their ancient cuſtoms, that they retain ſeveral of the Romiſh ſuperſtitions, and ſome ancient families among them are ſtill Roman Catholics. It is likewiſe ſaid, that Wales abounds with Romiſh prieſts in diſguiſe. And it is certain, that the principality contains great numbers of proteſtant diſſenters.

For BISHOPRICKS (ſee England). We are to obſerve, that in former times Wales contained more biſhopricks than it does now; and about the time of the Norman invaſion, the religious foundations there far exceeded the wealth of all the other parts of the principality.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Wales was a ſeat of learning at a very

a very early period; but it ſuffered an eclipſe by the repeated maſſacres of the bards and clergy. Wickliffiſm took ſhelter in Wales, when it was perſecuted in England. The Welch and Scotch diſpute about the nativity of certain learned men, particularly four of the name of Gildas. Giraldus Cambrenſis, whoſe hiſtory was publiſhed by Camden, was certainly a Welchman; and Leland mentions ſeveral learned men of the ſame country, who flouriſhed before the Reformation. The diſcovery of the famous king Arthur's and his wife's burying place was owing to ſome lines of Thalieſſin, which were repeated before Henry II. of England, by a Welch bard. Since the Reformation, Wales has produced ſeveral excellent antiquaries and divines. Among the latter were Hugh Broughton, and Hugh Holland, who was a Roman Catholic, and is mentioned by Fuller in his Worthies. Among the former were ſeveral gentlemen of the name of Llhuyd, particularly the author of that invaluable work the Archæologia. Rowland, the learned author of the Mona Antiqua, was likewiſe a Welchman; as was that great ſtateſman and prelate, the lord-keeper Williams, archbiſhop of York in the time of king Charles I. After all, I muſt be of opinion, that the great merit of the Welch learning, in former times, lay in the knowledge of the antiquity, language, and hiſtory of their own country. Wales, notwithſtanding all that Dr. Hicks, and other antiquaries, have ſaid to the contrary, furniſhed the Anglo-Saxons with an alphabet. This is clearly demonſtrated by Mr. Llhuyd, in his Welch preface to his Archæologia, and is confirmed by various monumental inſcriptions of undoubted authority. (See Rowland's Mona Antiqua). I muſt not, however, omit the excellent hiſtory of Henry VIII. writen by lord Herbert of Cherbury.

With regard to the preſent ſtate of literature among the Welch, it is ſufficient to ſay, that ſome of them make a conſiderable figure in the republic of letters, and that many of their clergy are excellent ſcholars. The Welch Pater-noſter is as follows:

Ein Tad, yr hwn wyt yn y nefoedd, ſanctteidddier dy enw; deued dy deyrnas; bydded dy ewyllys ar y ddaear, megis y mae yn y nefoed: dyro in i heddyw ein bara beunyddiol; a madden i ni ein dyledion, fel y maddeuwn ni i'n dyledwyr; ac nac arwain ni i brofedigaeth eithr gwared ni rhag drwg: canys eiddot ti yw'r deyrnas, a'r gallu, a'r gogoniant, yn eos eoſoedd. Amen.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. } Wales contains no cities or towns that are remarkable either for populouſneſs or magnificence. Beaumaris is the chief town of Angleſey *, and has a harbour for ſhips. Brecknock trades in clothing. Cardigan is a large populous town, and lies in the neighbourhood of lead and ſilver mines. Caermarthen has a large bridge, and is governed by a mayor, two ſheriffs, and aldermen, who wear ſcarlet gowns, and other enſigns of ſtate. Pembroke is well inhabited by gentlemen and tradeſmen; and part of the country is ſo fertile and pleaſant, that it is called Little England. The other towns of Wales have nothing particular. I am however to obſerve that Wales, in ancient times, was a far more populous and wealthy country than it is at preſent; and though it contains no regular fortifications, yet many of its old caſtles are ſo ſtrongly

* The iſle of Angleſey, which is the moſt weſtern county of North Wales, is ſurrounded on all ſides by the Iriſh ſea, except on the ſouth-eaſt, where it is divided from Britain by a narrow ſtrait, called Menew, which in ſome places may be paſſed on foot at low water. The iſland is about 24 miles long, and 18 broad, and contains 74 pariſhes. It was the ancient ſeat of the Britiſh Druids.

built, and ſo well ſituated, that they might be turned into ſtrong forts by a little expenſe: witneſs the vigorous defence which many of them made in the civil wars, between Charles I. and his parliament.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } Wales abounds in remains of antiquity. Several of its caſtles are ſtupendouſly large; and in ſome, the remains of Roman architecture are plainly deſcernible. The architecture of others is doubtful; and ſome appear to be partly Britiſh, and partly Roman. In Brecknockſhire are ſome rude ſculptures, upon a ſtone ſix feet high, called the Maiden-ſtone; but the remains of the Druidical inſtitutions, and places of worſhip, are chiefly diſcernible in the iſle of Angleſey, the ancient Mona, mentioned by Tacitus, who deſcribes it as being the chief ſeminary of the Druidical rites and religion. Cherphilly caſtle in Glamorganſhire is ſaid to have been the largeſt in Great Britain, excepting Windſor; and the remains of it ſhow it to have been a moſt beautiful fabric. One half of a round tower has fallen quite down, but the other overhangs its baſis more than nine feet, and is as great a curioſity as the leaning tower of Piſa in Italy.

Among the natural curioſities of this country, are the following. At a ſmall village called Newton, in Glamorganſhire, is a remarkable ſpring nigh the ſea, which ebbs and flows contrary to the ſea. In Merioneth-ſhire is Kader Idris, a mountain remarkable for its height, which affords variety of Alpine plants. In Flintſhire is a famous well, known by the name of St. Wenefred's well, at which, according to the legendary tales of the common people, miraculous cures have been perfomed. The ſpring boils with vaſt impetuoſity out of a rock, and is formed into a beautiful polygonal well, covered with a rich arch, ſupported by pillars, and the roof is moſt exquiſitely carved in ſtone. Over the ſpring is alſo a chapel, a neat piece of Gothic architecture, but in a very ruinous ſtate. King James II. paid a viſit to the well of St. Wenefred in 1686, and was rewarded for his piety by a preſent which was made him of the very ſhift in which his great grandmother, Mary Stuart, loſt her head. The ſpring is ſuppoſed to be one of the fineſt in the Britiſh dominions; and by two different trials and calculations lately made, is found to fling out about twenty-one tons of water in a minute. It never freezes, or ſcarcely varies in the quantity of water in droughts, or after the greateſt rains. After a violent fall of wet, it becomes diſcoloured by a wheyiſh tinge. The ſmall town adjoining to the well is known by the name of Holywell. In Caernarvonſhire is the high mountain of Penmanmawr, acroſs the edge of which the public road lies, and occaſions no ſmall terror to many travellers; from one hand the impending rock ſeems ready every minute to cruſh them to pieces; and the great precipice below, which hangs over the ſea, is ſo hideous, and till very lately, when a wall was raiſed on the ſide of the road, full of danger, that one falſe ſtep was of diſmal conſequence. Snowdon hill is by triangular meaſurement 1240 yards perpendicular height.

There are a great number of pleaſing proſpects and pictureſque views in Wales: and this country is highly worthy the attention of the curious traveller.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The Welch are on a footing, as to their commerce and manufactures, with many of the weſtern and northern counties of England. Their trade is moſtly inland, or with England, into which they import numbers of black cattle. Milfordhaven, which is reckoned the fineſt in Europe, lies in Pembrokeſhire; but the Welch have hitherto

hitherto reaped no great benefit from it, though of late conſiderable ſums have been granted by parliament for its fortification. It lies under two capital diſadvantages. The firſt is, that by making it the rendezvous of all the Engliſh marine, a bold attempt of an enemy might totally deſtroy the ſhipping, however ſtrongly they may be defended by walls and forts. The ſame objection however lies to every harbour that contains ſhips of war and merchantmen. The ſecond, and perhaps the chief diſadvantage it lies under, is the ſtrong oppoſition to rendering it the capital harbour of the kingdom, that it muſt meet with in parliament from the numerous Corniſh and Weſt-country members, the benefit of whoſe eſtates muſt be greatly leſſened by the diſuſe of Plymouth and Portſmouth, and other harbours. The town of Pembroke employs near 200 merchant ſhips, and its inhabitants carry on an extenſive trade. In Brecknockſhire are ſeveral woollen manufactures; and Wales in general carries on a great coal trade with England, and even Ireland.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Wales was united, and incorporated with England, in the 27th of Henry VIII. when, by act of parliament, the government of it was modelled according to the Engliſh form; all laws, cuſtoms, and tenures, contrary to thoſe of England, being abrogated, and the inhabitants admitted to a participation of all the Engliſh liberties and privileges, particularly that of ſending members to parliament, viz. a knight for every ſhire, and a burgeſs for every ſhire-town, except Merioneth. By the 34th and 35th of the ſame reign, there were ordained four ſeveral circuits for the adminiſtration of juſtice in the ſaid ſhires, each of which was to include three ſhires; ſo that the chief juſtice of Cheſter has under his juriſdiction the three ſeveral ſhires of Flint, Denbigh, and Montgomery. The ſhires of Caernarvon, Merioneth, and Angleſey, are under the juſtices of North Wales. Thoſe of Caermarthen, Pembrokeſhire, and Cardigan, have alſo their juſtices; as have likewiſe thoſe of Radnor, Brecknock, and Glamorgan. By the 18th of queen Elizabeth, one other juſtice-aſſiſtant was ordained to the former juſtices; ſo that now every one of the ſaid four circuits has two juſtices, viz. one chief-juſtice, and a ſecond juſtice-aſſiſtant.

REVENUES.] As to the revenues, the crown has a certain, though ſmall property, in the product of the ſilver and lead mines; but it is ſaid that the revenue accruing to the prince of Wales, from his principality, does not exceed 7 or 8,000l. a year.

ARMS.] The arms of the prince of Wales differ from thoſe of England, only by the addition of a label of three points. His cap, or badge of oſtrich feathers, was occaſioned by a trophy of that kind, which Edward the Black Prince took from the king of Bohemia, when he was killed at the battle of Poictiers, and the motto is *Ich dien*, I ſerve. St. David, commonly called St. Taffy, is the tutelar ſaint of the Welch, and his badge is a leek, which is worn on his day, the 1ſt of March, and for which various reaſons have been aſſigned.

HISTORY.] The ancient hiſtory of Wales is uncertain, on account of the number of petty princes who governed it. That they were ſovereign and independent, appears from the Engliſh hiſtory. It was formerly inhabited by three different tribes of Britons; the Silures, the Dimetæ, and the Ordovices. Theſe people cut out ſo much work for the Romans, that they do not appear ever to have been entirely ſubdued; yet part of their country, as appears from the ruins of the caſtles, was bridled by garriſons. Though the Saxons, as hath been already obſerved, conquered the counties of Monmouth and Hereford, yet they never penetrated farther, and

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the Welch remained an independent people, governed by their own princes and their own laws. About the year 870, Roderic, king of Wales, divided his dominions among his three ſons; and the names of theſe diviſions were, Dimetia, or South Wales; Poveſia, or Powis land; and Venedotia, or North Wales. This diviſion gave a mortal blow to the independency of Wales. About the year 1112, Henry I. of England planted a colony of Flemings on the frontiers of Wales, to ſerve as a barrier to England, none of the Welch princes being powerful enough to oppoſe them. They made, however, many vigorous and brave attempts againſt the Norman kings of England, to maintain their liberties; and even the Engliſh hiſtorians admit the injuſtice of their claims. In 1237, the crown of England was firſt ſupplied with a handle for the future conqueſt of Wales; their old and infirm prince Llewellin, in order to be ſafe from the perſecutions of his undutiful ſon Gryffyn, having put himſelf under ſubjection and homage to king Henry III.

But no capitulation could ſatisfy the ambition of Edward I. who reſolved to annex Wales to the crown of England; and Llewellin, prince of Wales, diſdaining the ſubjection to which old Llewellin had ſubmitted, Edward raiſed an irreſiſtible army at a prodigious expenſe, with which he penetrated as far as Flint, and taking poſſeſſion of the iſle of Angleſey, he drove the Welch to the mountains of Snowdon, and obliged them to ſubmit to pay a tribute. The Welch, however, made ſeveral efforts under young Llewellin; but at laſt, in 1285, he was killed in battle. He was ſucceeded by his brother David, the laſt independent prince of Wales, who, falling into Edward's hands through treachery, was by him moſt barbarouſly and unjuſtly hanged; and Edward, from that time, pretended that Wales was annexed to his crown of England. It was about this time, probably, that Edward perpetrated the inhuman maſſacre of the Welch bards. Perceiving that his cruelty was not ſufficient to complete his conqueſt, he ſent his queen in the year 1282, to be delivered in Caernarvon caſtle, that the Welch, having a prince born among themſelves, might the more readily recogniſe his authority. This prince was the unhappy Edward II. and from him the title of prince of Wales has always ſince deſcended to the eldeſt ſons of the Engliſh kings. The hiſtory of Wales and England becomes now the ſame. It is proper, however, to obſerve, that the kings of England have always found it their intereſt to ſoothe the Welch with particular marks of their regard. Their eldeſt ſons not only held their titular dignity, but actually kept a court at Ludlow; and a regular council, with a preſident, was named by the crown, for the adminiſtration of all the affairs of the principality. This was thought ſo neceſſary a piece of policy, that when Henry VIII. had no ſon, his daughter Mary was created princeſs of Wales.

ISLE OF MAN.

THE Mona mentioned by Tacitus was the iſle of Angleſea, not this iſland. Some think it takes its name from the Saxon word *Mang* (or among), becauſe, lying in St. George's Channel, it is almoſt at an equal diſtance from the kingdoms of England, Scotland, and Ireland; but Mona ſeems to have been a generical name with the ancients for any detached iſland. Its length from north to ſouth is rather more than thirty miles,

miles, its breadth from eight to fifteen; and the latitude of the middle of the iſland is fifty-four degrees ſixteen minutes north. It is ſaid that on a clear day the three Britannic kingdoms may be ſeen from this iſland. The air here is wholeſome, and the climate, only making an allowance for the ſituation, pretty much the ſame as that in the north of England, from which it does not differ much in other reſpects. The hilly parts are barren, and the champaign fruitful in wheat, barley, oats, rye, flax, hemp, roots, and pulſe. The ridge of mountains, which, as it were, divide the iſland, both protects and fertiliſes the vallies, where there is good paſturage. The better ſort of inhabitants have good ſizeable horſes, and a ſmall kind, which is ſwift and hardy; nor are they troubled with any noxious animals. The coaſts abound with ſea fowl; and the puffins, which breed in rabbit holes, are almoſt a lump of fat, and eſteemed very delicious. It is ſaid that this iſland abounds with iron, lead, and copper mines, though unwrought; as are the quarries of marble, ſlate, and ſtone.

The Iſle of Man contains ſeventeen pariſhes, and four towns on the ſea-coaſts. Caſtle-town is the metropolis of the iſland, and the ſeat of its government; Peele of late years begins to flouriſh; Douglas has the beſt market and beſt trade in the iſland, and is the richeſt and moſt populous town, on account of its excellent harbour, and its fine mole, extending into the ſea; Ramſey has likewiſe a conſiderable commerce, on account of its ſpacious bay, in which ſhips may ride ſafe from all winds excepting the north-eaſt. The reader, by throwing his eyes on the map, may ſee how conveniently this iſland is ſituated for being the ſtorehouſe of ſmugglers, which it was till within theſe few years, to the inexpreſſible prejudice of his majeſty's revenue; and this neceſſarily leads me to touch upon the hiſtory of the iſland.

During the time of the Scandinavian rovers on the ſeas, whom I have before mentioned, this iſland was their rendezvous, and their chief force was here collected; from whence they annoyed the Hebrides, Great Britain, and Ireland. The kings of Man are often mentioned in hiſtory; and though we have no regular account of their ſucceſſion, and know but a few of their names, yet they undoubtedly were for ſome ages maſters of thoſe ſeas. About the year 1263, Alexander II. king of Scotland, a ſpirited prince, having defeated the Danes, laid claim to the ſuperiority of Man, and obliged Owen or John, its king, to acknowledge him as lord paramount. It ſeems to have continued, either tributary or in property of the kings of Scotland, till it was reduced by Edward I. and the kings of England, from that time, exerciſed the ſuperiority over the iſland; though we find it ſtill poſſeſſed by the poſterity of its Daniſh princes, in the reign of Edward III. who diſpoſſeſſed the laſt queen of the iſland, and beſtowed it on his favourite, Montague, earl of Saliſbury. His family honours and eſtate being forfeited, Henry IV. beſtowed Man, and the patronage of the biſhoprick, firſt upon the Northumberland family, and that being forfeited, upon ſir John Stanley, whoſe poſterity, the earls of Derby, enjoyed it, till, by failure of heirs male, it devolved upon the duke of Athol, who married the ſiſter of the laſt lord Derby. Reaſons of ſtate rendered it neceſſary for the crown of Great Britain to purchaſe the cuſtoms and the iſland from the Athol family; and the bargain was completed by 70,000l. being paid to the duke in 1765. The duke, however, retains his territorial property in the iſland, though the form of its government is altered; and the king has now the ſame rights, powers and prerogatives, as the duke formerly enjoyed. The inhabitants, alſo, retain many of their ancient conſtitutions and cuſtoms.

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The eſtabliſhed religion in Man is that of the church of England. The biſhop of Sodor and Man enjoys all the ſpiritual rights and pre-eminences of the other biſhops, but does not ſit in the Britiſh houſe of peers; his ſee never having been erected into an Engliſh barony. One of the moſt excellent prelates who ever adorned the epiſcopal character, was Dr. Thomas Wilſon, biſhop of Man, who preſided over the dioceſe upwards of fifty-ſeven years, and died in the year 1755, aged ninety-three. He was eminently diſtinguiſhed for the piety and the exemplarineſs of his life, his benevolence and hoſpitality, and his unremitting attention to the happineſs of the people entruſted to his care. He encouraged agriculture, eſtabliſhed ſchools for the inſtruction of the children of the inhabitants of the iſland, tranſlated ſome of his devotional pieces into the Manks language, to render them more generally uſeful to them, and founded parochial libraries in every pariſh in his dioceſe. Some of his notions reſpecting government and church diſcipline were not of the moſt liberal kind: but his failings were ſo few, and his virtues ſo numerous and conſpicuous, that he was a great bleſſing to the Iſle of Man, and an ornament to human nature. Cardinal Fleury had ſo much veneration for his character, that, out of regard to him, he obtained an order from the court of France, that no privateer of that nation ſhould ravage the Iſle of Man.

The eccleſiaſtical government is well kept up in this iſland, and the livings are comfortable. The language, which is called the Manks, and is ſpoken by the common people, is radically Erſe, or Iriſh, but with a mixture of other languages. The New Teſtament and the Common Prayer book have been tranſlated into the Manks language. The natives, who amount to above 20,000, are inoffenſive, charitable, and hoſpitable. The better ſort live in ſtone houſes, and the poorer in thatched; and their ordinary bread is made of oatmeal. Their products for exportation conſiſt of wool, hides, and tallow; which they exchange with foreign ſhipping for commodities they may have occaſion for from other parts. Before the South promontory of Man, is a little iſland called the Calf of Man: it is about three miles in circuit, and ſeparated from Man by a channel about two furlongs broad.

This iſland affords ſome curioſities which may amuſe an antiquary. They conſiſt chiefly of Runic ſepulchral inſcriptions and monuments, of ancient braſs daggers, and other weapons of that metal, and partly of pure gold, which are ſometimes dug up, and ſeem to indicate the ſplendor of its ancient poſſeſſors.

ISLE OF WIGHT.

THIS iſland is ſituated oppoſite the coaſt of Hampſhire, from which it is ſeparated by a chann[illegible] varying in breadth from two to ſeven miles; it is conſidered as part of the county of Southampton, and is within the dioceſe of Wincheſter. Its greateſt length, extending from eaſt to weſt, meaſures nearly twenty-three miles; its breadth from north to ſouth above thirteen. The air is in general healthy, particularly in the ſouthern parts; the ſoil is various, but ſo great is its fertility, it was many years ago computed, that more wheat was grown here in one year, than could be conſumed by the inhabitants in eight; and it is ſuppoſed that its preſent produce, under the great improvements of agriculture, and the additional quantity

sity of land lately brought into tillage, has more than kept pace with the increase of population. A range of hills, which afford fine pasture for sheep, extends from east to west, through the middle of the island. The interior parts of the island, as well as its extremities, afford a great number of beautiful and picturesque prospects, not only in the pastoral, but also in the great and romantic style. Of these beauties the gentlemen of the island have availed themselves, as well in the choice of situations for their houses, as in their other improvements. Domestic fowls and poultry are bred here in great numbers; the outward-bound ships and vessels at Spithead, the Mother bank, and Cowes, commonly furnishing themselves from this island.

Such is the purity of the air, the fertility of the soil, and the beauty and variety of the landscapes of this island, that it has been called the garden of England; it has some very fine gentlemen's seats; and it is often visited by parties of pleasure on account of its delightful scenes.

The island is divided into thirty parishes; and, according to a very accurate calculation made in the year 1777, the inhabitants then amounted to eighteen thousand and twenty-four, exclusive of the troops quartered there. Most of the farm houses are built with stone, and even the cottages appear neat and comfortable, having each its little garden.

The town of Newport stands nearly in the centre of the island, of which it may be considered as the capital. The river Medina empties itself into the channel at Cowes harbour, distant about five miles, and being navigable up to the quay, renders it commodious for trade. The three principal streets of Newport extend from east to west, and are crossed at right angles by three others, all which are spacious, clean, and well paved.

Carisbrook castle, in the isle of Wight, has been rendered remarkable by the confinement of king Charles I. who, taking refuge here, was detained a prisoner, from November 1647, to September 1648. After the execution of the king, this castle was converted into a place of confinement for his children; and his daughter, the princess Elizabeth, died in it. There are several other forts in this island, which were all erected about the 36th year of the reign of Henry VIII. when many other forts and blockhouses were built in different parts of the coast of England.

The SCILLY ISLES, anciently the SILURES, are a cluster of dangerous rocks, to the number of 140, lying about 30 miles from the Land's End in Cornwall, of which county they were reckoned a part. By their situation between the English Channel and St. George's Channel, they have been the destruction of many ships and lives. Some of the islands are well inhabited, and have large and secure harbours.

In the English Channel are four islands subject to England: these are Jersey, Guernsey, Alderney, and Sark: which, though they lie much nearer to the coast of Normandy than to that of England, are within the diocese of Winchester. They lie in a cluster in Mount St. Michael's bay, between Cape la Hogue in Normandy, and Cape Frebelle in Brittany. The computed distance between Jersey and Sark is four leagues; and between that and Guernsey, seven leagues; and between the same and Alderney, nine leagues.

JERSEY, anciently CÆSAREA, was known to the Romans: and lies farthest within the bay, in forty-nine degrees seven minutes north latitude, and in the second degree twenty-six minutes west longitude, 18 miles west

of Normandy, and 84 miles ſouth of Portland. The north ſide is inacceſſible through lofty cliffs, the ſouth is almoſt level with the water; the higher land, in its midland part, is well planted, and abounds with orchards, from which is made an incredible quantity of excellent cyder. The vallies are fruitful and well cultivated, and contain plenty of cattle and ſheep. The inhabitants neglect tillage too much, being intent upon the culture of cyder, the improvement of commerce, and particularly the manufacture of ſtockings. The honey in Jerſey is remarkably fine; and the iſland is well ſupplied with fiſh and wild-fowl almoſt of every kind, ſome of both being peculiar to the iſland, and very delicious.

The iſland is not above twelve miles in length: but the air is ſo ſalubrious, that, in Camden's time, it was ſaid there was here no buſineſs for a phyſician. The inhabitants in number are about 20,000, and are divided into twelve pariſhes. The capital town is St. Helier, or Hilary, which contains above 400 houſes, has a good harbour and caſtle, and makes a handſome appearance. The property of this iſland belonged formerly to the Carterets, a Norman family, who have been always attached to the royal intereſt, and gave protection to Charles II. both when king and prince of Wales, at a time when no part of the Britiſh dominions durſt recogniſe him. The language of the inhabitants is French, with which moſt of them intermingle Engliſh words. Knit ſtockings and caps form their ſtaple commodity, but they carry on a conſiderable trade in fiſh with Newfoundland, and diſpoſe of their cargoes in the Mediterranean. The governor is appointed by the crown of England, but the civil adminiſtration reſts with a bailiff, aſſiſted by twelve jurats. As this iſland is the principal remains of the duchy of Normandy, depending on the kings of England, it preſerves the old feudal forms, and particularly the aſſembly of ſtates, which is, as it were, a miniature of the Britiſh parlament, as ſettled in the time of Edward I.

GUERNSEY is thirteen miles and a half from ſouth-weſt to north-eaſt, and twelve and a half where broadeſt, eaſt and weſt; has only ten pariſhes, to which there are but eight miniſters, four of the pariſhes being united, and Alderney and Sark, which are appendages of Guernſey, having one a-piece. Though this is a much finer iſland than that of Jerſey, yet it is far leſs valuable; becauſe it is not ſo well cultivated, nor is it ſo populous. It abounds in cyder; and the inhabitants ſpeak French: but want of firing is the greateſt inconveniency that both iſlands labour under. The only harbour here is at St. Peter le Port, which is guarded by two forts, one called the Old-Caſtle, and the other Caſtle-Cornet. Guernſey is likewiſe part of the ancient Norman patrimony.

ALDERNEY is about eight miles in compaſs, and is by much the neareſt of all theſe iſlands to Normandy, from which it is ſeparated by a narrow ſtrait, called the Race of Alderney, which is a dangerous paſſage in ſtormy weather, when the two currents meet; otherwiſe it is ſafe, and has depth of water for the largeſt ſhips. This iſland is healthy, and the ſoil is remarkable for a fine breed of cows.

SARK is a ſmall iſland depending upon Guernſey; the inhabitants are long lived, and enjoy from nature all the conveniencies of life; their number is about 300. The inhabitants of the three laſt mentioned iſlands together, are thought to be about 20,000. The religion of all the four iſlands is that of the church of England.

Plate IX.

IRELAND
from the best
AUTHORITIES.

Irish Miles
0 10 20 30 35
British Statute Miles.
0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70

ATLANTIC OCEAN

IRISH SEA

ST. GEORGES CHANNEL

BRISTOL CHANNEL

NYMPH BANK
Discovered in 1735 by
Capt: Doyle.

Longitude West from London.

13 12 11 10 9 8 7 6 5

55 54 53 52

IRELAND
from the best
AUTHORITIES.

Irish Miles
5 10 20 30 35
British Statute Miles.
6 10 20 30 40 50 60 70

13 12 1 5
55 54 53 52
1 2 1 1 5

f Cantire
Ailsa
Girvan
SCOTLAND
Wigtoun
Port Patrick
Wigtoun Bay
Mull of Galloway
Bally Faris
Strangford Bay
Patrick
The M
Sade
Blc
Achil
ISLE of MAN
Peel
Sodor
Calf of Man
Long Isl
IRISH SEA
Ennis Bofi
Dogs Isl
Slime
Round
Carven Pt
ISLE of
Holy Head
Bean
ANGLESEA
Carnarvon Bay
Braychipult P.
Cardigan Bay
C. Lean
St. Brandd
CHANNEL
Strumble Hd
Cardigan
Cape Sybel
Great Blasquet
Blasques Is
Enniskeilane
WALES
St. Davids Hd
St. Davids
St. Brides Bay
Ding
Valentia I.
Skelig Rock
Milford Hav
Worms H.
St. Gowens P.
BRISTOL
CHANNEL
Ballynskeli
Dursey Isle &
Lundy I.
from London.
ATLANTIC OCEAN

Engraved for Kitchin's Maps.

IRELAND.

SITUATION, BOUNDARIES, AND EXTENT.

THE iſland of Ireland is ſituated on the weſt ſide of England, between 6 and 10 degrees weſt longitude, and between 51 and 55 degrees 30 minutes north latitude, or between the middle parallel, of the eighth clime, where the longeſt day is 16½ hours, and the 24th parallel, or the end of the 10th clime, where the longeſt day is 17½ hours.

The extent or ſuperficial content of this kingdom is, from the neareſt computation and ſurvey, found to be in length 285 miles from Fairhead north, to Miſſenhead ſouth; and from the eaſt part of Down, to the weſt part of Mayo, its greateſt breadth 160 miles; and to contain 11,067,712 Iriſh plantation acres, which makes 17,927,864 acres of Engliſh ſtatute meaſure, and is held to bear proportion to England and Wales as 18 to 30. Mr. Templeman, who makes the length 275, and the breadth 150 miles, gives it an area of 27,457 ſquare miles, with 127 inhabitants to each. From the eaſt part of Wexford to St. David's in Wales, it is reckoned 15 miles, but the paſſage between Donaghadee and Portpatrick in Scotland is little more than twenty miles, and the paſſage from Holyhead in North Wales, about 52 miles.

NAMES AND DIVISIONS, ANCIENT AND MODERN. Many conjectures have been formed as to the Latin (Hibernia), the Iriſh (Erin), as well as the Engliſh name of this iſland. It probably takes its riſe from a Phœnician or Gaelic term, ſignifying the fartheſt habitation weſtward.

It is pretty extraordinary, that even modern authors are not agreed as to the diviſions of Ireland; ſome dividing it into five circuits, and ſome into four provinces, thoſe of Leinſter, Ulſter, Connaught, and Munſter. I ſhall follow the laſt diviſion, as being the moſt common, and likewiſe the moſt ancient.

	Counties.	Chief Towns.
Leinſter, 12 counties	Dublin	Dublin
	Louth	Drogheda
	Wicklow	Wicklow
	Wexford	Wexford
	Longford	Longford
	Eaſt Meath	Trim
	Weſt Meath	Mullingar
	King's County	Philipſtown
	Queen's County	Maryborough
	Kilkenny	Kilkenny
	Kildare	Naas and Athy
	Carlow.	Carlow.
Ulſter, 9 counties	Down	Down Patrick
	Armagh	Armagh
	Monaghan	Monaghan
	Cavan	Cavan.
	Antrim	Carrickfergus
	Londonderry	Derry
	Tyrone	Omagh
	Fermanagh	Enniſkillen
	Donegall.	Lifford.

		Counties.	Chief Towns.
Connaught, 5 counties		Leitrim	Carrick on Shannon
		Roſcommon	Roſcommon
		Mayo	Ballinrobe and Caſtlebar
		Sligo	Sligo
		Galway.	Galway.
Munſter, 6 counties		Clare	Ennis
		Cork	Cork
		Kerry	Tralee
		Limerick	Limerick
		Tipperary	Clonmel
		Waterford.	Waterford.

CLIMATE, SEASONS, AND SOIL.] The climate of Ireland differs not much from that of England, excepting that it is more moiſt, the ſeaſons in general being much wetter. From the reports of various regiſters it appears, that the number of days on which rain had fallen in Ireland was much greater than in the ſame years in England. But without the evidence of regiſters, it is certain, that moiſture (even without rain), is not only more characteriſtic of the climate of this iſland than that of England, but is alſo one of the worſt and moſt inconvenient circumſtances. This is accounted for in obſerving, that, "the weſterly winds, ſo favourable to other regions, and ſo benign even in this, by qualifying the rigour of the northern air, are yet hurtful in the extreme. Meeting with no lands on this ſide of America to break their force, and proving in the general too powerful for the counteraction of the ſhifting winds from the eaſtern and African continents, they waft hither the vapours of an immenſe ocean. By this cauſe, the ſky in Ireland is much obſcured; and, from the nature of reſt and condenſation, theſe vapours deſcend in ſuch conſtant rains, as threaten deſtruction to the fruits of the earth in ſome ſeaſons. This unavoidable evil from natural cauſes is aggravated by the increaſe of it from others, which are either moral or political. The hand of induſtry hath been long idle in a country where almoſt every advantage muſt be obtained from its labour, and where diſcouragements on the labourer muſt neceſſarily produce a ſtate of languor. Ever ſince the neglect of agriculture in the ninth century, the rains of ſo many ages ſubſiding on the lower grounds, have converted moſt of the extenſive plains into moſſy moraſſes, and near a tenth part of this beautiful iſle is become a repoſitory for ſtagnated waters, which, in the courſe of evaporation, impregnate the air with noxious exhalations *." But, in many reſpects, the climate of Ireland is more agreeable than that of England; the ſummers being cooler and the winters leſs ſevere. The piercing froſts, the deep ſnows, and the dreadful effects of thunder and lightning, which are ſo frequently obſerved in the latter kingdom, are never experienced here.

The dampneſs above alluded to, being peculiarly favourable to the growth of graſs, has been uſed as an argument why the inhabitants ſhould confine their attention to the rearing of cattle, to the total deſertion of tillage, and injurious to the conſequent growth of population; but the ſoil is ſo infinitely various, as to be capable of almoſt every ſpecies of cultivation, ſuitable to ſuch latitude, with a fertility equal to its variety. This is ſo conſpicuous, that it has been obſerved by a reſpectable Engliſh traveller, that "natural fertility, acre for acre, over the two kingdoms, is certainly in favour of Ireland; of this there can ſcarcely be a doubt entertained,

* O'Connor's Diſſertations.

tained, when it is conſidered that ſome of the more beautiful, and even beſt cultivated counties in England, owe almoſt every thing to the capital art and induſtry of its inhabitants."

We ſhall conclude this article with the further ſentiments of the ſame author (Mr. Young), whoſe knowledge of the ſubject, acquaintance with the kingdom, and candour, are unimpeachable.

"The circumſtance which ſtrikes me as the greateſt ſingularity of Ireland, is the rockineſs of the ſoil, which ſhould ſeem at firſt ſight againſt that degree of fertility; but the contrary is the fact. Stone is ſo general that I have good reaſon to believe the whole iſland is one vaſt rock of different ſtrata and kinds riſing out of the ſea. I have rarely heard of any great depths being ſunk without meeting with it. In general it appears on the ſurface in every part of the kingdom; the flatteſt and moſt fertile parts, as Limerick, Tipperary, and Meath, have it at no great depth, almoſt as much as the more barren ones. May we not recogniſe in this the hand of bounteous providence, which has given, perhaps, the moſt ſtony ſoil in Europe to the moiſteſt climate in it? If as much rain fell upon the clays in England, (a ſoil very rarely met with in Ireland, and never without much ſtone) as falls upon the rocks of her ſiſter iſland, thoſe lands could not be cultivated. But the rocks here are clothed with verdure; thoſe of lime-ſtone, with only a thin covering of mould, have the ſofteſt and moſt beautiful turf imaginable.

"The rockineſs of the ſoil in Ireland is ſo univerſal, that it predominates in every ſort. One cannot uſe with propriety the terms clay, loam, ſand, &c. it muſt be a ſtony clay, a ſtony loam, a gravelly ſand. Clay, eſpecially the yellow, is much talked of in Ireland, but it is for want of proper diſcrimination. I have once or twice ſeen almoſt a pure clay upon the ſurface, but it is extremely rare. The true yellow clay is uſually found in a thin ſtratum, under the ſurface mould, and over a rock; harſh, tenacious, ſtony, ſtrong loams, difficult to work, are not uncommon, but they are quite different from Engliſh clays.

"Friable ſandy loams, dry, but fertile, are very common, and they form the beſt ſoils in the kingdom for tillage and ſheep. Tipperary and Roſcommon abound particularly in them. The moſt fertile of all are the bullock-paſtures of Limerick, and the banks of the Shannon in Clare, called the Corcaſſes. Theſe are a mellow, putrid, friable loam.

"Sand, which is ſo common in England, and yet more common through France, Germany, and Poland, quite from Gibraltar to Peterſburg, is no where met with in Ireland, except in narrow ſlips of hillocks, upon the ſea-coaſt. Nor did I ever meet with or hear of a chalky ſoil.

"Beſides the great fertility of the ſoil, there are other circumſtances, which come within my ſphere to mention. Few countries can be better watered by large and beautiful rivers; and it is remarkable that by much the fineſt parts of the kingdom are on the banks of theſe rivers. Witneſs the Suir, Blackwater, and Liffey, the Boyne, the Nore, the Barrow, and part of the Shannon; they waſh a ſcenery that can hardly be exceeded. From the rockineſs of the country, however, there are few of them that have not obſtructions, which are great impediments to inland navigation.

"The mountains of Ireland give to travelling that intereſting variety, which a flat country can never abound with; and, at the ſame time, they are not in ſuch number as to confer the character of poverty which uſually attends them. I was either upon or very near the moſt conſiderable in the kingdom. Mangerton, and the Reeks in Kerry; the Galties in Cork; thoſe of Mourne in Down; Crow Patrick and Nephin, in Mayo; theſe

are the principal in Ireland, and they are of a character in height and ſublimity, which ſhould render them the object of every traveller's attention. The ſoil, though rocky, is extremely fertile, perhaps beyond that of England itſelf, when properly cultivated. Paſturage, tillage, and meadow ground abound in this kingdom; but of late tillage was too much diſcountenanced, though the ground is excellent for the culture of all grains; and in ſome of the northern parts of the kingdom abundance of hemp and flax are raiſed, a cultivation of infinite advantage to the linen manufacture. Ireland rears vaſt numbers of black cattle and ſheep, and the Iriſh wool is excellent. The prodigious ſupplies of butter and ſalt proviſions (fiſh excepted) ſhipped at Cork, and carried to all parts of the world, afford the ſtrongeſt proofs of the natural fertility of the Iriſh ſoil."

The bogs of Ireland are very extenſive: that of Allen extends 80 miles, and is computed to contain 300,000 acres. There are others alſo which are very extenſive, and ſmaller ones ſcattered over the whole kingdom; but it has been obſerved, that theſe are not in general more than are wanted for fuel.

RIVERS, BAYS, HARBOURS, AND LAKES. The numerous rivers, enchanting lakes, ſpacious bays, commodious havens, harbours, and creeks, with which Ireland abounds, greatly enrich and beautify this country. The Shannon iſſues from Lough Allen, in the county of Leitrim, ſerves as a boundary between Connaught and the three other provinces, and, after a courſe of 150 miles, forming in its progreſs many beautiful lakes, it falls into the Atlantic Ocean, between Kerry-point and Loop-head, where it is nine miles broad. The navigation of this river is interrupted by a ridge of rocks ſpreading quite acroſs it, ſouth of Killaloe; but this might be remedied by a ſhort canal, at the expence of 10 or 12,000l. and communication might alſo be made with other rivers to the great benefit of the nation. The Ban falls into the ocean near Coleraine; The Boyne falls into St. George's Channel at Drogheda, as does the Liffey at the bay of Dublin, and is only remarkable for watering that capital, where it forms a ſpacious harbour. The Barrow, the Nore, and the Suir, water the ſouth part of the kingdom, and, after uniting their ſtreams below Roſs, they fall into the Channel at Waterford haven.

But the bays, havens, harbours, and creeks, which every where indent the coaſt, form the chief glory of Ireland, and render that country beyond any country in Europe beſt fitted for foreign commerce. The moſt conſiderable are thoſe of Carrickfergus, Strangford, Dundrum, Carlingford, Dundalk, Dublin, Waterford, Dungarvan, Cork, Kinſale, Baltimore, Glandore, Dunmanus, Bantry, Kenmare, Dingle, Shannonmouth, Galway, Sligo, Donegall, Killebegs, Lough-Swilly, and Lough-Foyle.

Ireland contains a vaſt number of lakes, or, as they were formerly called, loughs, particularly in the province of Ulſter and Connaught. Many of them produce large quantities of fine fiſh: and the great lake Neagh, between the counties of Antrim, Down, and Armagh, is remarkable for its petrifying quality. Some of the Iriſh lakes afford the moſt beautiful and romantic proſpects, particularly that of Killarney, which takes its name from a ſmall town in the county of Kerry. This lake, which may be divided into three, is entirely ſurrounded with mountains, rocks, and precipices, the immenſe declivities of which are covered with woods, intermixed with ever-greens, from near their tops to the lakes themſelves; among which are a number of rivulets tumbling over the precipices, ſome from heights of little leſs than 300 feet. On the top of one of the ſurrounding mountains in a ſmall round lake about a quarter of a mile in diameter, called

called the Devil's Punch Bowl. From the ſurface of the lake to the top of the cavity, or brim of the bowl, may be about 300 yards, and when viewed from the circular top it has a moſt aſtoniſhing appearance. The depth of it is vaſtly great, but not unfathomable, as the natives pretend. The diſcharge of the ſuperfluous waters of this bowl, through a chaſm into the middle lake, forms one of the fineſt caſcades in the world, viſible for 150 yards. The echoes among the hills ſurrounding the ſouthern parts of the lake, which is moſtly incloſed, are equally delightful and aſtoniſhing. The proprietor, the earl of Kenmare, has placed ſome cannon in the moſt proper places, for the amuſement of travellers; and the diſcharge of theſe pieces is tremendous, reſembling moſt the rolling of a violent peal of thunder, which ſeems to travel the ſurrounding ſcenery, and die away among the diſtant mountains. Here alſo muſical inſtruments, eſpecially the horn and trumpet, afford the moſt delightful entertainment, and raiſe a concert ſuperior to that of a hundred performers. Among the vaſt and craggy heights that ſurround the lake, is one ſtupendous and frightful rock, the front of which towards the water, is a moſt horrid precipice, called the *eagle's neſt*, from the number of thoſe birds which have their neſts in that place.

INLAND NAVIGATION.] The inland navigation of Ireland is very improveable, as appears from the canals that have lately been cut through different parts of the kingdom; one in particular, reaching an extent of 60 miles, between the Shannon and the Liffey at Dublin, which opens a communication from the Channel to the Atlantic Ocean. In ſurveying the grounds for this canal, it was found neceſſary to carry it through a bog 24 miles over, which, from the ſpungy nature of that ſoil, became a work of incredible labour and expence, in ſtrengthening the ſides, and other works, to prevent falling in.

MOUNTAINS.] The Iriſh language has been more happy in diſtinguiſhing the ſize of mountains than perhaps any other. A *knock* ſignifies a low hill, unconnected with any other eminence; *ſlieve* marks a craggy high mountain, gradually aſcending and continued in ſeveral ridges; a *bienn* or binn ſignifies a pinnacle, or mountain of the firſt magnitude, ending in a ſharp or abrupt precipice. The two laſt are often ſeen and compounded together in one and the ſame range. Ireland, however, when compared with ſome other countries, is far from being mountainous. The mountains of Mourne and Iveagh, in the county of Down, are reckoned among ſome of the higheſt in the kingdom; of which Slieu Denard has been calculated at a perpendicular height of 1056 yards. Many other mountains are found in Ireland, but they contain little or nothing particular, if we except the fabulous hiſtories that are annexed to ſome of them. Some of theſe mountains contain in their bowels, beds of minerals, coals, ſtone, ſlate, and marble, with veins of iron, lead, and copper.

FORESTS.] The chief foreſts in Ireland lie in Leinſter, the King's and Queen's counties, and thoſe of Wexford and Carlow. In Ulſter there are great foreſts, and in the county of Donnegall, and in the north part of Tyrone; alſo in the county of Fermanagh, along Lough Earne, and in the north part of the county of Down, wherein is ſome good timber; and the oak is eſteemed as good as any of the Engliſh growth, and as fit for ſhip-building.

METALS AND MINERALS.] The mines of Ireland are late diſcoveries. Several contain ſilver and lead, and it is ſaid that thirty pounds of their lead-ore produce a pound of ſilver; but the richeſt ſilver mine is at Wick-

low. A copper and lead mine have been discovered at Tipperary: as likewise iron-ore; and excellent free-stone for building. In one part of the kingdom is a stream of water, very much impregnated with copper, which yields great quantities of that metal. The method taken to obtain it, is by putting broad plates of iron into a place where the water falls from some height, so that they may receive the whole power of the falling water. The acid, which holds the copper in solution, lets it fall in order to dissolve the iron, to which it has a stronger affinity. On the iron the other metal appears in its proper form, incrusting the plate, and gradually penetrating it; so that at last a plate of copper is left instead of iron. Hence, it is said by the vulgar, that this water has a power of changing iron into copper; but this is a mistake, for the iron is all dissolved and carried down the stream by the acid, which formerly held the copper in solution; while the latter, deprived of its solvent, which then rendered it invisible, only makes its appearance when the water lets it fall. Some of the Irish marble quarries contain a kind of porphyry, being red striped with white. Quarries of fine slate are found in most of the counties. The coals that are dug at Kilkenny emit very little smoke; and it contains a crystalline stream which has no sediment. Those peculiarities, with the serenity of the air in that place, have given rise to the well-known proverb, That Kilkenny contains fire without smoke, water without mud, and air without fog.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND. } There is little that falls under this head that is peculiar to Ireland, her productions being much the same as those of England and Scotland. Ireland affords excellent turf and moss, which are of vast service for firing, where wood and coals are scarce. A few wolves were formerly found in Ireland; but they have long since been exterminated by their wolf-dogs, which are much larger than mastiffs, shaped like greyhounds, yet as gentle and governable as spaniels. What I have already observed about the Irish exportation of salt provisions, sufficiently evinces the prodigious numbers of hogs and sheep, as well as black cattle, bred in that kingdom. Rabbits are said to be more plentiful there than in England. The fish that are caught upon the coasts of Ireland are likewise in greater plenty than on those of England, and some of them larger and more excellent in their kind.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } Ireland is said to contain two millions and a half of inhabitants; but I suspect that the calculation is overcharged by near half a million. As it is of great consequence to ascertain as near as possible the number of inhabitants of Ireland of both religions, we shall give them according to the best accounts, as they stood in the four provinces in 1733:

	Protestant Families.	Popish Families.
In Ulster - - -	62,620	- - - - 38,459
Leinster - - -	25,238	- - - - 92,424
Munster - - -	13,337	- - - - 106,407
Connaught - -	4,299	- - - - 44,133
	Total 105,494	Total 281,423;

which is five to each family in the country, and ten for Dublin, and seven for Cork city, makes in all 2,015,229 souls. I am apt to think, when we consider the waste of war by sea and land, and the vast emigrations of the Irish to England, the British colonies, and other nations, that the above calcula-

calculation may nearly ſerve for the preſent times, though the balance of number is certainly greatly riſen on the ſide of Proteſtantiſm: and in ſome late debates in the Iriſh parliament, it has been aſſerted, that the number of inhabitants of Ireland amount to three millions.

As to the manners of the ancient Iriſh, Dr. Leland obſerves, that if we make our enquiries on this ſubject in Engliſh writers, we find their repreſentations odious and diſguſting: if from writers of their own race, they frequently break out into the moſt animated encomiums of their great anceſtors. The one can ſcarcely allow them any virtue: the other, in their enthuſiaſtic ardour, can ſcarcely diſcover the leaſt imperfection in their laws, government, or manners. The hiſtorian of England ſometimes regards them as the moſt deteſtable and contemptible of the human race. The antiquary of Ireland raiſes them to an illuſtrious eminence, above all other European countries. Yet when we examine their records, without regard to legendary tales or poetic fictions, we find them, even in their moſt brilliant periods, advanced only to an imperfect civilization; a ſtate which exhibits the moſt ſtriking inſtances both of the virtues and the vices of humanity.

With reſpect to the preſent deſcendants of the old Iriſh, or, as they are termed by the Proteſtants, the *mere Iriſh*, they are generally repreſented as an ignorant, uncivilifed, and blundering ſort of people. Impatient of abuſe and injury, they are implacable and violent in all their affections; but quick of apprehenſion, courteous to ſtrangers, and patient of hardſhip. Though in theſe reſpects there is, perhaps, little difference between them and the more uninformed part of their neighbours, yet their barbariſms are more eaſy to be accounted for, from accidental than natural cauſes. By far the greater number of them are Papiſts, and it is the intereſt of their prieſts, who govern them with abſolute ſway, to keep them in the moſt profound ignorance. They have alſo laboured under many diſcouragements, which in their own country have prevented the exertion both of their mental and bodily faculties; but when employed in the ſervice of foreign princes, they have been diſtinguiſhed for intrepidity, courage, and fidelity. Many of their ſurnames have an *O*, or *Mac*, placed before them, which ſignify grandſon and ſon; formerly the *O* was uſed by their chiefs only, or ſuch as piqued themſelves on the antiquity of their families. Their muſic is the bagpipe, but their tunes are generally of a melancholy ſtrain; though ſome of their lateſt airs are lively; and when ſung by an Iriſhman, are extremely diverting. The old Iriſh is generally ſpoken in the interior parts of the kingdom, where ſome of the old uncouth cuſtoms ſtill prevail, particularly their funeral howlings; but this cuſtom may be traced in many countries of the continent. Their cuſtom of placing a dead corpſe before their doors, laid out upon tables, having a plate upon the body to excite the charity of paſſengers, is practiſed even in the ſkirts of Dublin, though one would wiſh to ſee it aboliſhed. Their convivial meetings on Sunday afternoon, with dancing to the bagpipe, and more often quarrelling among themſelves, is offenſive to every ſtranger. But, as we have already obſerved, theſe cuſtoms are chiefly confined to the more unpoliſhed provinces of the kingdom, particularly Connaught; the common people there having the leaſt ſenſe of law and government of any in Ireland, excepting their tyrannical landlords or leaſeholders, who ſqueeze the poor without mercy. The common Iriſh, in their manner of living, ſeem to reſemble the ancient Britons, as deſcribed by Roman authors, or the preſent Indian inhabitants of America. Mean huts or cabins built of clay and ſtraw, partitioned in the middle by a wall of the ſame materials, ſerve

the double purpoſes of accommodating the family, who live and ſleep promiſcuouſly, having their fires of turf in the middle of the floor, with an opening through the roof for a chimney; the other being occupied by a cow, or ſuch pieces of furniture as are not in immediate uſe.

Their wealth conſiſts of a cow, ſometimes a horſe, ſome poultry, and a ſpot for potatoes. Coarſe bread, potatoes, eggs, milk, and ſometimes fiſh, conſtitute their food; for however plentifully the fields may be ſtocked with cattle, theſe poor natives ſeldom taſte butchers' meat of any kind. Their children, plump, robuſt, and hearty, ſcarcely know the uſe of cloaths, and are not aſhamed to gaze upon ſtrangers, or make their appearance upon the roads, in that primitive manner.

In this idle and deplorable ſtate, many thouſands have been loſt to the community and to themſelves, who, if they had but an equal chance with their neighbours, of being inſtructed in the real principles of Chriſtianity, and been inured and encouraged to induſtry and labour, would have added conſiderable ſtrength to government. The Spaniards and French, particularly the latter, have not failed to avail themſelves of the uncomfortable ſituation in which the Iriſh were at home, by alluring them to enter their ſervice; and in this they have hitherto been aſſiſted by prieſts and jeſuits, whoſe intereſt it was to infuſe into the minds of their credulous diſciples an averſion to the Britiſh government: but we have now the pleaſing proſpect of a happy reformation among theſe people, in conſequence of the late laws paſſed by the parliament of Great Britain in favour of Ireland, as well as from the numerous Engliſh proteſtant working ſchools lately eſtabliſhed over the kingdom; which inſtitution will undoubtedly ſtrike deeper at the root of popery than all the endeavours of the Britiſh monarchs to reduce them.

The deſcendants of the Engliſh and Scots, ſince the conqueſt of Ireland by Henry II. though not the moſt numerous, form the wealthieſt part of the nation. Of theſe are moſt of the nobility, gentry, and principal traders, who inhabit the eaſtern and northern coaſts, where moſt of the trade of Ireland is carried on, eſpecially Belfaſt, Londonderry, and other parts of the province of Ulſter, which, though the pooreſt ſoil, is, next to Dublin and its neighbourhood, by far the beſt cultivated and moſt flouriſhing part of the kingdom. Here a colony of Scots in the reign of James I. and other Preſbyterians, who fled from perſecution in that country in the ſucceeding reigns, planted themſelves and eſtabliſhed that great ſtaple of Iriſh wealth, the linen manufactory, which they have ſince carried on and brought to the utmoſt perfection. From this ſhort review, it appears, that the preſent inhabitants are compoſed of three diſtinct claſſes of people; the old Iriſh, poor, ignorant, and depreſſed, who inhabit, or rather exiſt, upon the interior and weſtern parts; the deſcendants of the Engliſh, who inhabit Dublin, Waterford, and Cork, and who gave a new appearance to the whole coaſt facing England, by the introduction of arts, commerce, ſcience, and more liberal and cultivated ideas of the true God and primitive Chriſtianity; thirdly, emigrants from Scotland in the northern provinces, who, like the others, are ſo zealouſly attached to their own religion and manner of living, that it will require ſome ages before the inhabitants of Ireland are ſo throughly conſolidated and blended as to become one people. The gentry, and better ſort of the Iriſh nation, in general differ little in language, dreſs, manners, and cuſtoms, from thoſe of the ſame rank in Great Britain, whom they imitate. Their hoſpitality is well known; but in this they are ſometimes ſuſpected of more oſtentation than real friendſhip.

RELI-

RELIGION.] The eſtabliſhed religion and eccleſiaſtical diſcipline of Ireland is the ſame with that of England. Among the bulk of the people in the moſt uncultivated parts, popery, and that too of the moſt abſurd, illiberal kind, is prevalent. The Iriſh papiſts ſtill retain their nominal biſhops and dignitaries, who ſubſiſt on the voluntary contributions of their votaries. But even the blind ſubmiſſion of the latter to their clergy does not prevent Proteſtantiſm from making a very rapid progreſs in the towns and communities. How far it may be the intereſt of England, that ſome kind of balance between the two religions ſhould be kept up, I ſhall not here enquire.

Ireland contains at leaſt as many ſectaries as England, particularly Preſbyterians, Baptiſts, Quakers, and Methodiſts, who are all of them connived at or tolerated. Great efforts have been made, ever ſince the days of James I. in erecting free-ſchools for civiliſing and converting the Iriſh Papiſts to Proteſtantiſm. The inſtitution of the incorporated ſociety for promoting Engliſh Proteſtant working-ſchools, though of no older date than 1717, has been amazingly ſucceſsful, as have many inſtitutions of the ſame kind, in introducing induſtry and knowledge among the Iriſh; and no country in the world can ſhew greater public-ſpirited efforts than have been made by the government of Ireland, ſince that time, for theſe purpoſes; but many of the parliamentary grants of this kind have been trifled with and perverted.

ARCHBISHOPRICKS AND BISHOPRICKS.] The archbiſhopricks are four; Armagh, Dublin, Caſhel, and Tuam.

The biſhopricks are eighteen, viz. Clogher, Clonfert, Cloyne, Cork, Derry, Down, Dromore, Elphin, Kildare, Killala, Kilmore, Killaloe, Leighlin, Limerick, Meath, Oſſory, Raphoe, and Waterford.

LANGUAGE.] The language of the Iriſh is fundamentally the ſame with the Britiſh and Welch, and a dialect of the Celtic, which is made uſe of by the Scotch Highlanders, oppoſite the Iriſh coaſts. It is, however, in a great meaſure defaced by provincial alterations, but not ſo altered as to render the Iriſh, Welch, and Highlanders, unintelligible to each other. The uſage of the Iriſh language occaſions among the common people, who ſpeak both that and the Engliſh, a diſagreeable tone in ſpeaking, which diffuſes itſelf among the vulgar in general, and even among the better ſort, who do not underſtand Iriſh. It is probable, that a few ages hence the latter will be accounted among the dead languages.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Learning ſeems to have been cultivated in Ireland at a very early period. Mr. O'Halloran ſays, that the Iriſh 'appear to have been, from the moſt remote antiquity, a poliſhed people, and that with propriety they may be called the Fathers of Letters.' We are even told, that Egypt received arts and letters from Niulus the Phœnician, who is repreſented as the great anceſtor of the Iriſh nation. But theſe accounts are conſidered by many as fabulous: and it has been obſerved that no literary monuments have yet been diſcovered in Ireland earlier than the introduction of Chriſtianity into this country; and that the evidence of any tranſaction, previous to this period, reſts entirely on the credit of Chriſtian writers, and their collections from old poets, or their tranſcripts of records deemed to have been made in the times of Paganiſm.

It is ſaid, that when St. Patrick * landed in Ireland, he found many

* It has been affirmed, that St. Patrick was a Scotchman; but Mr. O'Halloran denies this, and ſays, that 'it appears from the moſt authentic records, that Patrick was from Wales.'

holy and learned Chriſtian preachers there, whoſe votaries were pious and obedient. Camden obſerves, that, 'the Iriſh ſcholars of St. Patrick profited ſo notably in Chriſtianity, that, in the ſucceeding age, Ireland was termed *Sanctorum Patria*. Their monks ſo greatly excelled in learning and piety, that they ſent whole flocks of moſt learned men into all parts of Europe, who were the firſt founders of Lieuxeu abbey, in Burgundy; of the abbey Bobie, in Italy; of Wirtzburgh, in Franconia; St. Gall, in Switzerland; and of Malmſbury, Lindisfarran, and many other monaſteries, in Britain.' We have alſo the teſtimony of venerable Bede, that about the middle of the ſeventh century, many nobles, and other orders of the Anglo-Saxons, retired from their own country into Ireland either for inſtruction, or for an opportunity of living in monaſteries of ſtricter diſcipline: and that the Scots (as he ſtiles the Iriſh) maintained them, taught them, and furniſhed them with books, without fee or reward: 'a moſt honourable teſtimony,' ſays lord Lyttleton, 'not only to the learning, but likewiſe to the hoſpitality and bounty of that nation.' Dr. Leland remarks, that a conflux of foreigners to a retired iſland, at a time when Europe was in ignorance and confuſion, gave peculiar luſtre to this ſeat of learning: nor is it improbable or ſurpriſing, that ſeven thouſand ſtudents ſtudied at Armagh, agreeable to the accounts of Iriſh writers, though the ſeminary of Armagh was but one of thoſe numerous colleges erected in Ireland.

In modern times, the Iriſh have alſo diſtinguiſhed themſelves in the republic of letters. Archbiſhop Uſher does honour to literature itſelf. Dean Swift, who was a native of Ireland, has perhaps never been equalled in the walks of wit, humour, and ſatire. The ſprightlineſs of Farquhar's wit is well known to all lovers of the drama. And among the men of diſtinguiſhed genius whom Ireland has lately produced, may alſo be particularly mentioned ſir Richard Steele, biſhop Berkeley, Parnel, Sterne, and Goldſmith.

UNIVERSITY.] Ireland contains but one univerſity, which is denominated Trinity college. It conſiſts of two ſquares, in the whole of which are thirty-three buildings, of eight rooms each. Three ſides of one of the ſquares are of brick, and the fourth is a very ſuperb library, but being built of bad ſtone, it is unfortunately mouldering away. The inſide is beautiful and commodious, and embelliſhed with the buſts of ſeveral ancient and modern worthies. A great part of the books on one ſide were collected by archbiſhop Uſher, who was one of the original members of this body, and the moſt learned man it ever produced. The new ſquare, three ſides of which have been built within about twenty years, by parliamentary bounty, and from thence called Parliament Square, is of hewn ſtone; and the front of it next the city of Dublin, is ornamented with pilaſtres, feſtoons, &c. The provoſt's houſe has an elegant little front, entirely of Portland ſtone. The chapel is a very mean ſtructure, as is alſo the old hall, wherein college exerciſes are performed; but the new hall, in which the members of the college dine, is a fair and large room. In their muſeum, is a ſet of figures in wax, repreſenting females in every ſtate of pregnancy. They are done upon real ſkeletons, and are the labours of almoſt a whole life of a French artiſt.

This ſeminary was founded and endowed by queen Elizabeth; but the original foundation conſiſted only of a provoſt, three fellows, and three ſcholars; which has from time to time been augmented to twenty-two fellows, ſeventy ſcholars, and thirty ſizers. However, the whole number of ſtudents is at preſent about four hundred; who are of three claſſes, fellow-

low-commoners, penſioners, and fizers or ſervitors. Of the fellows, ſeven are called ſeniors; and the annual income of each of theſe is about ſeven hundred pounds. The provoſtſhip is ſuppoſed to be worth three thouſand pounds a year. Trinity College has a power of conferring degrees of bachelors, maſters, and doctors, in all the arts of faculties. The viſitors are, the chancellor or vice-chancellor, and the archbiſhop of Dublin.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. I have already mentioned the wolf-dogs in Ireland. The Iriſh goſhawks and gerfalcons are celebrated for their ſhape and beauty. The mooſe-deer is thought to have been formerly a native of this iſland, their horns being ſometimes dug up of ſo great a ſize, that one pair has been found near eleven feet from the tip of the right horn to the tip of the left; but the greateſt natural curioſity in Ireland is the Giants' Cauſeway in the county of Antrim, about eight miles from Colerain, which is thus deſcribed by Dr. Pococke, late biſhop of Oſſory, a celebated traveller and antiquary. He ſays, "that he meaſured the moſt weſterly point at high water, to the diſtance of 360 feet from the cliff; but he was told, that at low water it extended 60 feet farther upon a deſcent, till it was loſt in the ſea. Upon meaſuring the eaſtern point, he found it 540 feet from the cliff; and ſaw as much more of it as of the other, where it winds to the eaſt, and is, like that, loſt in the water.

"The cauſeway is compoſed of pillars, all of angular ſhapes, from three ſides to eight. The eaſtern point, where it joins the rock, terminates in a perpendicular cliff, formed by the upright ſides of the pillars, ſome of which are thirty-three feet four inches high. Each pillar conſiſts of ſeveral joints or ſtones, lying one upon another, from ſix inches to about one foot in thickneſs, and what is very ſurpriſing, ſome of theſe joints are ſo convex, that their prominences are nearly quarters of ſpheres, round each of which is a ledge, which holds them together with the greateſt firmneſs, every ſtone being concave on the other ſide, and fitting in the exacteſt manner the convexity of the upper part of that beneath it. The pillars are from one to two feet in diameter, and generally conſiſt of about forty joints, moſt of which ſeparate very eaſily; and one may walk along upon the tops of the pillars as far as to the edge of the water.

"But this is not the moſt ſingular part of this extraordinary curioſity, the cliffs themſelves being ſtill more ſurpriſing. From the bottom, which is of black ſtone, to the height of about ſixty feet, they are divided at equal diſtances by ſtripes of a reddiſh ſtone, that reſembles a cement, about four inches in thickneſs; upon this there is another ſtratum of the ſame black ſtone, with a ſtratum of five inches thick of the red. Over this is another ſtratum ten feet thick, divided in the ſame manner; then a ſtratum of the red ſtone twenty feet deep, and above that a ſtratum of upright pillars; above theſe pillars lies another ſtratum of black ſtone, twenty feet high; and, above this again, another ſtratum of upright pillars, riſing in ſome places to the tops of the cliffs, in others not ſo high, and in others again above it, where they are called the chimnies. The face of theſe cliffs extends about three Engliſh miles.

The cavities, the romantic proſpects, cataracts, and other pleaſing and uncommon natural objects to be met with in Ireland, are too numerous to be called rarities, and ſeveral pamphlets have been employed in deſcribing them. As to the artificial rarities in Ireland, the chief are the round Pharos, or ſtone towers, found upon the coaſts, and ſuppoſed to be built by the Danes and Norwegians in their piratical incurſions, who made uſe of them as ſpy-towers or barbicans, light-houſes or beacons.

CITIES,

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE.

Dublin, the capital of Ireland, is in magnitude and the number of inhabitants, the ſecond city in the Britiſh dominions; much about the ſize of Stockholm, Copenhagen, Berlin, and Marſeilles, and is ſuppoſed to contain near 200,000 inhabitants. It is ſituated 270 miles northweſt of London, and near ſixty miles weſt from Holyhead in North Wales, the uſual ſtation of the paſſage-veſſels between Great Britain and Ireland. Dublin ſtands about ſeven miles from the ſea, at the bottom of a large and ſpacious bay, to which it gives name, upon the river Liffey, which divides it almoſt into two equal parts, and is banked in through the whole length of the city, on both ſides, which form ſpacious and noble quays, where veſſels below the firſt bridge load and unload before the merchants' doors and warehouſes. A ſtranger, upon entering the bay of Dublin, which is about ſeven miles broad, and in ſtormy weather extremely dangerous, is agreeably ſurpriſed with the beautiful proſpect on each ſide, and the diſtant view of Wicklow mountains; but Dublin, from its low ſituation, makes no great appearance. The increaſe of Dublin, within theſe laſt twenty years, is incredible, and it is generally ſuppoſed that 7000 houſes have been added to the city and ſuburbs ſince the reign of queen Anne. The number of houſes in the year 1777, was 17,151, and there have been many new buildings erected ſince. This city, in its appearance, bears a near reſemblance to London. The houſes are of brick; the old ſtreets are narrow and mean, but the new ſtreets are as elegant as thoſe of the metropolis of Great Britain. Sackville-ſtreet, which is ſometimes called the Mall, is particularly noble. The houſes are elegant, lofty, and uniformly built, and a gravel walk runs through the whole at an equal diſtance from the ſides.

The river Liffey, though navigable for ſea veſſels as far as the cuſtom-houſe, or centre of the city, is but ſmall, when compared with the Thames at London. Over it are two handſome bridges, lately built, of ſtone, in imitation of that at Weſtminſter, and there are three others that have little to recommend them. Formerly the centre of Dublin, towards the cuſtom-houſe, was crowded and inconvenient for commercial pupoſes; but of late a new ſtreet has been opened, leading from Eſſex-bridge to the caſtle, where the lord lieutenant reſides. A new exchange has been lately erected, an elegant ſtructure of white ſtone, richly embelliſhed with ſemi-columns of the Corinthian order, a cupola, and other ornaments.

The barracks are pleaſantly ſituated on an eminence near the river. They conſiſt of four large courts, in which are generally quartered four battalions of foot, and one regiment of horſe; from hence the caſtle and city guards are relieved daily. They are ſaid to be the largeſt and completeſt building of the kind in Europe, being capable of containing 3000 foot and 1000 horſe.

The linen hall was erected at the public expence, and opened in the year 1728, for the reception of ſuch linen cloths as were brought to Dublin for ſale, for which there are convenient apartments. It is entirely under the direction of the truſtees for the encouragement of the linen manufactory of Ireland, who are compoſed of the lord chancellor, the primate, the archbiſhop of Dublin, and the principal part of the nobility and gentry. This national inſtitution is productive of great advantage, by preventing many frauds which otherwiſe would be committed in a capital branch of trade, by which many thouſands are employed, and the kingdom greatly enriched.

Stephen's Green is a moſt extenſive ſquare, round which is a gravel walk of near a mile. Here genteel company walk in the evenings, and on Sundays after two o'clock, and in fine weather make a very gay appear-

ance.

ance. Many of the houſes round the green are very ſtately, but a want of uniformity is obſervable throughout the whole. Ample amends will be made for this defect by another ſpacious ſquare near Stephen's Green, now laid out and partly built. The houſes being lofty, uniform, and carried on with ſtone as far as the firſt floor, will give the whole an air of magnificence, not exceeded by any thing of the kind in Britain, if we except Bath. The front of Trinity-college, extending above 3000 feet, is built of Portland ſtone in the fineſt taſte.

The parliament houſe was begun in 1729, and finiſhed in 1739, at the expence of 40,000l. This ſuperb pile was in general of the Ionic order, and was juſtly accounted one of the foremoſt architectural beauties. The portico in particular was, perhaps, without parallel; the internal parts had alſo many beauties, and the manner in which the building was lighted has been much admired. This ſuperb building, on the 27th of February 1792, was obſerved to be in flames, about 5 o'clock in the afternoon, when the houſe of Lords, as well as the Commons, was ſitting, and in full debate. When the alarm was given, one of the members made his way to the roof, and looking down into the houſe from one of the ventilators, confirmed the apprehenſions of thoſe within, by ſaying the dome was ſurrounded by fire, and would tumble into the houſe in five minutes. The volume of fire, by which the doom was ſurrounded, ſoon made apertures on all ſides, by melting the copper from the wood-work, and thus exhibiting the cavity of the dome filled with flames like a large furnace, which at about half paſt ſix tumbled into the houſe with one great craſh. The valuable library, and all the papers of importance, were ſaved.

But one of the greateſt and moſt laudable undertakings that this age can boaſt of, is the building of a ſtone wall about the breadth of a moderate ſtreet, and of a proportionable height, and three miles in length, to confine the channel of the bay, and to ſhelter veſſels in ſtormy weather.

The civil government of Dublin is by a lord-mayor, &c. the ſame as in London. Every third year, the lord mayor, and the twenty-four companies, by virtue of an old charter, are obliged to perambulate the city, and its liberties, which they call riding the Franchiſes. Upon this occaſion the citizens vie with each other in ſhow and oſtentation, which is ſometimes productive of diſagreeable conſequences to many of their families. In Dublin there are two large theatres, that are generally well filled, and which ſerve as a kind of nurſery to thoſe in London. In this city are 18 pariſh churches, 8 chapels, 3 churches for French, and 1 for Dutch proteſtants, 7 preſbyterian meeting houſes, 2 for methodiſts, 2 for quakers, and 16 Roman catholic chapels. A royal hoſpital, like that at Chelſea, for invalids; a lying-in hoſpital, with gardens, built and laid out in the fineſt taſte; an hoſpital for lunatics, founded by the famous Dean Swift, who himſelf died a lunatic; and ſundry other hoſpitals for patients of every kind. Some of the churches have been lately rebuilt, and others are rebuilding in a more elegant manner. And, indeed, whatever way a ſtrangar turns himſelf in this city, he will perceive a ſpirit of elegance and magnificence; and if he extends his view over the whole kingdom, he will conclude that works of ornament and public utility in Ireland, almoſt keep pace with thoſe erecting, great as they are, over the different parts of Great Britain. For it muſt be acknowledged that no nation in Europe, comparatively ſpeaking, has expended ſuch ſums as the grants of the Iriſh parliament, which has been, and continues to be, the life and ſoul of whatever is carried on; witneſs the many noble erections, churches, hoſpitals, bridges; the forming of harbours, public roads, canals, and other public and private undertakings.

It has, however, been matter of ſurpriſe, that with all this ſpirit of national improvement, few or no good inns are to be met with in Ireland. In the capital, which may be claſſed among the ſecond order of cities of Europe, there is not one inn which deſerves that name. This may, in ſome meaſure, be accounted for, by the long, and ſometimes dangerous paſſage from Cheſter and Holyhead to Ireland, which prevents the gentry of England, with their families, from viſiting that iſland; but as it is now propoſed to make turnpike roads to Portpatrick in Scotland, from whence the paſſage is ſhort and ſafe, the roads of Ireland may, by this means, become more frequented, eſpecially when the rural beauties of that kingdom are more generally known. For though in England, France, and Italy, a traveller meets with views the moſt luxuriant and rich, he is ſometimes cloyed with a ſameneſs that runs through the whole; but in thoſe countries of North Britain and Ireland, the rugged mountains, whoſe tops look down upon the clouds, the extenſive lakes, enriched with buſhy iſlands, the cavities, glens, cataracts, the numerous feathered creation, hopping from cliff to cliff, and other pleaſing and uncommon natural objects, that frequently preſent themſelves in various forms and ſhapes, have a wonderful effect upon the imagination, and are pleaſing to the fancy of every admirer of nature, however rough and unadorned with artificial beauties.

Cork is deſervedly reckoned the ſecond city in Ireland, in magnitude, riches, and commerce. It lies 129 miles ſouth-weſt of Dublin, and contains above 8500 houſes. Its haven is deep, and well ſheltered from all winds; but ſmall veſſels only can come up to the city, which ſtands about ſeven miles up the river Lee. This is the chief port of merchants in the kingdom; and there is, perhaps, more beef, tallow, and butter ſhipped off here, than in all the others ports of Ireland put together. Hence there is a great reſort of ſhips to this port, particularly of thoſe bound from Great Britain to Jamaica, Barbadoes, and all the Caribbee iſlands, which put in here to victual and complete their lading. It appears, that in the reign of Edward IV. there were 11 churches in Cork, though there are now only ſeven, and yet it has ever ſince that time been eſteemed a thriving city: but it muſt be obſerved, that beſides the churches, there are at this time ſix maſs-houſes, two diſſenting meeting-houſes, another for quakers, and a chapel for French proteſtants. Kinſale is a populous and ſtrong town, with an excellent harbour, and conſiderable commerce and ſhipping; and it is, moreover, occaſionally a ſtation for the navy royal; for which end this port is furniſhed with proper naval officers and ſtorekeepers. Waterford is reckoned next to Cork for riches and ſhipping, and contains 2561 houſes. It is commanded by Duncannon Fort, and on the weſt ſide of the town is a citadel. Limerick is a handſome, populous, commercial, ſtrong city; it lies on both ſides the Shannon, and contains 5257 houſes.

Belfaſt is a large ſea-port and trading town at the mouth of the Lagen water, where it falls into Carrickfergus Bay. Downpatrick has a flouriſhing linen manufacture. Carrickfergus (or Knockfergus) by ſome deemed the capital town of the province, has a good harbour and caſtle, but little commerce. Derry (or Londonderry, as it is moſt uſually called) ſtands on Lough-Foyl, is a ſtrong little city, having linen manufactures, with ſome ſhipping. All this extreme north part of Ireland is ſituated ſo near to Scotland, that they are in ſight of each other's coaſts. Donnegal, the county-town of the ſame name (otherwiſe called the county of Tyrconnel), is a place of ſome trade; as is likewiſe Enniſkilling. All which laſt mentioned places, and many more (though leſs conſiderable ones), are chiefly and moſtly induſtriouſly employed in the manufacturing of linen and linen

thread,

thread, to the benefit of the whole kingdom, which, by its vaſt annual exportations of linen into England, is enabled to pay for the great annual importations from England into Ireland; and likewiſe to render the money conſtantly drawn from Ireland into England, by her abſentees, leſs grievous to her.

Though Ireland contains no ſtrong places, according to the modern improvements in fortification, yet it had ſeveral forts and garriſons, that ſerve as comfortable ſinecures to military officers. The chief are Londonderry and Culmore Fort, Cork, Limerick, Kinſale, Duncannon, Roſs-Caſtle, Dublin, Charlemont, Galway, Carrickfergus, Maryborough, and Athlone. Each of theſe forts is furniſhed with deputy governors, under various denominations, who have pecuniary proviſions from the government.

It cannot be pretended, that Ireland is as yet furniſhed with any public edifices, to compare with thoſe to be found in countries where ſovereigns and their courts reſide; but it has ſome elegant public buildings, which do honour to the taſte and public ſpirit of the inhabitants. The caſtle, Eſſex-bridge, and ſeveral edifices about Dublin, already mentioned, are magnificent and elegant pieces of architecture; and many noble Gothic churches, and other buildings, are to be ſeen in Ireland.

The Iriſh nobility, and gentry of fortune, now vie with thoſe of England in the magnificent ſtructure of their houſes, and the elegance of their ornaments; but it would be unjuſt, where there are ſo many equal in taſte and magnificence, to particulariſe any. In ſpeaking of the public buildings of this kingdom, I muſt not forget the numerous barracks where the ſoldiers are lodged, equally to the eaſe and conveniency of the inhabitants.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] What I have ſaid of England under this head, is in a great meaſure applicable to Ireland. Her exports are linen-cloth, yarn, lawns, and cambrics, horſes, and black cattle, beef, pork, green hides, tanned leather, calf-ſkins dried, tallow, butter, candles, cheeſe, ox and cow-horns, ox-hair, horſe-hair, lead, copper-ore, herrings, dried fiſh, rabbit-ſkins, and fur, otter-ſkins, goat-ſkins, ſalmon, and ſome other particulars; but it is probable that the exports of Ireland will be greatly increaſed by the late laws paſſed in favour of the trade of that kingdom. It is certain that the Iriſh have carried their inland manufactures, even thoſe of luxury, to a conſiderable height, and that their lord lieutenants and their courts have of late encouraged them by their examples, and, while they are in that government, make uſe of no other.

PUBLIC TRADING COMPANIES.] Of theſe I know none in Ireland, as the bankers cannot be admitted as ſuch: neither can the Dublin Society for the encouragement of manufactures and commerce, which was incorporated in 1750. The linen-hall, however, that is erected at Dublin, is under as juſt and nice regulations as any commercial houſe in Europe.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Ireland formerly was only entitled the dominion or lordſhip of Ireland, and the king's ſtyle was no other than Dominus Hiberniæ, lord of Ireland, till the 33d year of king Henry VIII. when he aſſumed the title of king, which is recogniſed by act of parliament in the ſame reign. But as England and Scotland are now one and the ſame kingdom, and yet differ in their municipal laws; ſo England and Ireland are diſtinct kingdoms, and yet in general agree in their laws. For after the conqueſt of Ireland by king Henry II. the laws of England were received and ſworn to by the Iriſh nation, aſſembled at the council of Liſmore. And as Ireland, thus conquered, planted, and governed, continued in a ſtate of dependence, it was thought neceſſary that it ſhould confirm to, and be obliged by, ſuch laws as the ſuperior ſtate thought proper to preſcribe.

But

But this ſtate of dependence being almoſt forgotten, and ready to be diſputed by the Iriſh nation, it was thought neceſſary, ſome years ago, to declare how that matter ſtood; and therefore, by ſtatute 6th of George I. it is declared, "that the kingdom of Ireland ought to be ſubordinate to, and dependent upon the imperial crown of Great Britain, as being inſeparably united thereto; and that the king's majeſty, with the conſent of the lords and commons of Great Britain in parliament, hath power to make laws to bind the people of Ireland." This determination of the Britiſh parliament was, however, far from giving general ſatisfaction to the Iriſh nation, many of whom diſputed the dependency of Ireland upon the parliament of Great Britain more than ever. After many ſtruggles, feeling their own ſtrength by means of their volunteer aſſociations, and encouraged and favoured by the ſeveral parties contending for the adminiſtration in England, the Iriſh obtained, in the year 1782, a formal repeal of the above galling ſtatute, which was conſidered as a renunciation on the part of the parliament of Great Britain of every claim of legiſlation over Ireland.

The conſtitution of the Iriſh government, as it ſtands at preſent, with regard to diſtributive juſtice, is nearly the ſame with that of England. A chief governor, who generally goes by the name of lord lieutenant, is ſent over from England by the king, whom he repreſents; but his power is in ſome meaſure reſtrained, and in others enlarged, according to the king's pleaſure, or the exigency of the times. On his entering upon this honourable office, his letters patent are publicly read in the council-chamber; and having taken the uſual oaths before the lord chancellor, the ſword, which is to be carried before him, is delivered into his hands, and he is ſeated in the chair of ſtate, attended by the lord chancellor, the members of the privy-council, the peers and nobles, the king at arms, a ſerjeant at mace, and other officers of ſtate; and he never appears publicly without being attended by a body of horſe-guards. Hence, with reſpect to his authority, his train and ſplendor, there is no viceroy in Chriſtendom that comes nearer to the grandeur and majeſty of a king. He has a council compoſed of the great officers of the crown; namely, the chancellor, treaſurer, and ſuch of the archbiſhops, biſhops, earls, barons, judges, and gentlemen, as his majeſty is pleaſed to appoint. The parliament here, as well as in England, is the ſupreme court, which is convened by the king's writ, and generally ſits once every year. It conſiſts, as in England, of a houſe of lords and commons. Of the former, many are Engliſh or Britiſh peers, or commons of Great Britain; a few are papiſts, who cannot ſit without being properly qualified; and the number of commons amount to about three hundred. Since the acceſſion of his preſent majeſty, Iriſh parliaments have been rendered octennial. The repreſentation of the people in the ſenate of Ireland is, in many inſtances, like that of England, partial and inadequate. As long as a majority of the commons is compoſed of members for inſignificant boroughs, and where a few individuals are devoted to the ſelfiſh or imperious will of a ſtill ſmaller number of lords or abſolute grandees, a ſpirit of venality muſt pervade the political ſyſtem through all the departments of ſtate, corrupt the repreſentatives, and deſtroy the freedom of the legiſlative body. If parliaments were ſtill more limited in their duration, it would be better for the public, and greatly promote national proſperity. The laws are made by the houſe of lords and commons, after which they are ſent to England for the royal approbation; when, if approved of by his majeſty and council, they paſs the great ſeal of England, and are returned.

For

For the regular diſtribution of juſtice, there are alſo in Ireland four terms held annually for the deciſion of cauſes; and four courts of juſtice, the chancery, king's bench, common-pleas, and exchequer. The high ſheriffs of the ſeveral counties were formerly choſen by the people, but are now nominated by the lord lieutenant. From this general view it appears, that the civil and eccleſiaſtical inſtitutions are almoſt the ſame in Ireland as in England.

REVENUES.] In Ireland the public revenue ariſes from hereditary and temporary duties, of which the king is the truſtee, for applying it to particular purpoſes: but there is, beſides this, a private revenue ariſing from the ancient demeſne lands, from forfeitures for treaſon and felony, priſage of wines, light-houſe duties, and a ſmall part of the caſual revenue, not granted by parliament; and in this the crown has the ſame unlimited property that a ſubject has in his own freehold. The extent of that revenue is perhaps a ſecret to the public.

The revenue of Ireland is ſuppoſed at preſent to exceed half a million ſterling, of which the Iriſh complain greatly and juſtly, that about 70,000l. is granted in penſions, and a great part to abſentees. Very large ſums are alſo granted by their own parliament for more valuable purpoſes, the improvement of their country and civiliſing the people; ſuch as the inland navigation, bridges, highways, churches, premiums, proteſtant ſchools, and other particulars, which do honour to the wiſdom and patriotiſm of that parliament.

COINS.] The coins of Ireland are at preſent of the ſame denominations and the like fabric with thoſe of England, only an Engliſh ſhilling paſſes in Ireland for thirteen pence. What the ancient coins of the Iriſh were, is at preſent a matter of mere curioſity and great uncertainty.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] Ireland now maintains and pays a conſiderable body of troops, who have been often of ſingular ſervice to England; and the military force of Ireland was at one time greatly increaſed by the many volunteer aſſociated companies, which were formed in that kingdom, but have been lately ſuppreſſed by act of parliament. Thoſe parts of Ireland that are moſt uncultivated, contain numbers of inhabitants that have very little ſenſe either of divine or human laws, and regular forces are abſolutely neceſſary for keeping them in order; witneſs the late inſurrections of the Whiteboys, and other banditti, who were inſtigated by their prieſts; though it muſt be confeſſed, that many of the common people in Ireland have laboured under ſuch oppreſſions as afforded them juſt grounds for diſcontent. It does not however appear, that the bulk of the Iriſh Catholics are fond of a revolution in government, as few or none of them joined Thurot in his deſcent upon Carrickfergus, or took any part with the Pretender in the laſt rebellion.

ORDER OF ST. PATRICK.] This order was inſtituted February 5, and the inſtallation of the firſt knights was performed on the 17th of March, 1783. It conſiſts of the ſovereign and fifteen other knights companions. The lord lieutenants of Ireland for the time being officiate as grand maſters of the order, and the archbiſhop of Armagh is the prelate, the archbiſhop of Dublin the chancellor, and the dean of St. Patrick the regiſter of the order. The knights are inſtalled in the cathedral of St. Patrick, Dublin. Their robes are ſplendid, and the badge is three crowns united together on a croſs, with the motto round, *Quis ſeparabit?* 1783, faſtened by an Iriſh harp to the crown imperial. A ſtar of eight points encircles it on the coat.

HISTORY.] The hiſtory of Ireland has been carried to a very remote antiquity, and may, with greater juſtice than that of any other country, be

be diſtinguiſhed into the legendary and authentic. In the reign of Edward II. an Ulſter prince boaſted to the pope of an uninterrupted ſucceſſion of one hundred and ninety-ſeven kings of Ireland, to the year 1170. Even the more moderate Iriſh antiquaries carry their hiſtory up to 500 years before the Chriſtian æra, at which time they aſſert, that a colony of Scythians, immediately from Spain, ſettled in Ireland, and introduced the Phœnician language and letters into this country; and that however it might have been peopled ſtill earlier from Gaul or Britain, yet Heber, Heremon, and Ith, the ſons of Mileſius, gave a race of kings to the Iriſh, diſtinguiſhed from their days by the name of Gadelians and Scuits, or Scots. But as our limits will not permit us to enlarge on the dark and conteſted parts of the Iriſh hiſtory, we ſhall only obſerve, that it was about the middle of the fifth century that the great apoſtle of Ireland, St. Patrick, was employed in the propagation of Chriſtianity in this country, though there had been Chriſtian miſſionaries here long before, by whoſe means it had made a conſiderable progreſs among the inhabitants of Ireland. After this period, Ireland was occaſionally invaded by the Saxon kings of England; but in the years 795 and 798 the Danes and Norwegians, or, as they were called, Eaſterlings, invaded the coaſt of Ireland, and were the firſt who erected ſome edifices in that kingdom. The common habitations of the Iriſh, till that time, were hurdles covered with ſtraw and ruſhes, and but very few of ſolid timber. The natives defended themſelves bravely againſt the Eaſterlings, who built Dublin, Waterford, Limerick, Wexford, and Cork; but they reſided chiefly at Dublin, or in its neighbourhood, which, by the old Iriſh, was called Fingal, or the Land of Strangers. The natives, about the year 962, ſeemed to have called to their aſſiſtance the Anglo-Saxon king Edgar, who had then a conſiderable maritime power; and this might have given occaſion for his clergy to call him king of great part of Ireland. It is certain that Dublin was about that time a flouriſhing city, and that the native Iriſh gave the Eaſterlings ſeveral defeats, though ſupported by their countrymen from the continent, the iſle of Man, and the Hebrides.

In the twelfth century, Henry the Second of England formed a deſign of annexing Ireland to his dominions. He is ſaid to have been induced to this by the provocation he had received from ſome of the Iriſh chieftains, who had afforded conſiderable aſſiſtance to his enemies. His deſign was patroniſed by the pope, and a fair pretext of attacking Ireland offered about the year 1168. Dermot Mac Murrough, king of Leinſter, and an oppreſſive tyrant, quarrelled with all his neighbours, and carried off the wife of a petty prince, O'Roirk. A confederacy being formed againſt him, under Roderick O'Conner (who it ſeems was the paramount king of Ireland) he was driven from his country, and took refuge in the court of Henry II. who promiſed to reſtore him, upon taking an oath of fidelity to the crown of England, for himſelf, and all the petty kings depending on him, who were very numerous. Henry, who was then in France, recommended Mac Dermot's cauſe to the Engliſh barons, and particularly to Strongbow, earl of Pembroke, Robert Fitz-Stephen, and Maurice Fitzgerald. Thoſe noblemen undertook the expedition upon much the ſame principles as the Norman and Breton lords did the conqueſt of England under William I. and Strongbow was to marry Mac Dermot's daughter Eva. In 1169, the adventurers reduced the towns of Wexford and Waterford; and the next year Strongbow arriving with a ſtrong reinforcement, his marriage was celebrated.

The deſcendants of the Danes continued ſtill poſſeſſed of Dublin, which, after

after ſome ineffectual oppoſition made by the king O'Connor, was taken and plundered by the Engliſh ſoldiers; but Mac Turkil, the Daniſh king, eſcaped to his ſhipping. Upon the death of Dermot, Henry II. became jealous of earl Strongbow, ſeized upon his eſtates in England and Wales, and recalled his ſubjects from Ireland. The Iriſh about the ſame time, to the amount of above 60,000, beſieged Dublin, under king O'Connor; but though all Strongbow's Iriſh friends and allies had now left him, and the city was reduced to great extremity, he forced the Iriſh to raiſe the ſiege with great loſs; and going over to England, he appeaſed Henry by ſwearing fealty to him and his heirs, and reſigning into his hands all the Iriſh cities and forts he held. During Strongbow's abſence, Mac Turkil returned with a great fleet, attempted to retake the city of Dublin, but was killed at the ſiege; and in him ended the race of the Eaſterling princes in Ireland.

In 1172, Henry II. attended by 400 knights, 4000 veteran ſoldiers, and the flower of his Engliſh nobility, landed near Waterford; and not only all the petty princes of Ireland, excepting the king of Ulſter, but the great king Roderick O'Connor, ſubmitted to Henry, who pretended that O'Connor's ſubmiſſion included that of Ulſter, and that conſequently he was the paramount ſovereign of Ireland. Be that as it will, he affected to keep a magnificent court, and held a parliament at Dublin, where he parcelled out the ſtates of Ireland, as William the Conqueror had done in England, to his Engliſh nobility. He then ſettled a civil adminiſtration at Dublin, as nearly as poſſible to that of England, to which he returned in 1173, having firſt ſettled an Engliſh colony from Briſtol in Dublin, with all the liberties and free cuſtoms, ſay their charters, which the citizens of Briſtol enjoyed. From that time Dublin began to flouriſh.—Thus the conqueſt of Ireland was effected by the Engliſh, almoſt with as much eaſe, as that of Mexico was by the Spaniards; and for much the ſame reaſons, the rude and unarmed ſtate of the natives, and the differences that prevailed among their princes or leaders.

Henry gave the title of lord of Ireland to his ſon John, who, in 1185, went over in perſon to Ireland; but John and his giddy Norman courtiers made a very ill uſe of their power, and rendered themſelves hateful to the Iriſh, who were otherwiſe very well diſpoſed towards the Engliſh. Richard I. was too much taken up with the cruſades to pay any great regard to the affairs of Ireland; but king John, after his acceſſion, made amends for his former behaviour towards the Iriſh. He enlarged his father's plan of introducing into Ireland Engliſh laws and officers, and he erected that part of the provinces of Leinſter and Munſter, which was within the Engliſh pale, into twelve counties. I find, however, that the deſcendants of the ancient princes in other places paid him no more than a nominal ſubjection. They governed by their old Brehon laws, and exerciſed all acts of ſovereignty within their own ſtates; and indeed this was pretty much the caſe ſo late as the reign of James I. The unſettled reign of Henry III. his wars and captivity, gave the Iriſh a very mean opinion of the Engliſh government during his reign; but they ſeem to have continued quiet under his ſon Edward I. Gaveſton, the famous favourite of Edward II. acquired great credit while he acted as lieutenant of Ireland; but the ſucceſſes of the Scotch king, Robert Bruce, had almoſt proved fatal to the Engliſh intereſt in Ireland, and ſuggeſted to the Iriſh the idea of transferring their allegiance from the kings of England to Edward Bruce, king Robert's brother. That prince accordingly invaded Ireland, where he gave repeated defeats to the Engliſh governors and armies; and being ſupported by his brother in per-

ſon,

ſon, he was actually crowned king at Dundalk, and narrowly miſſed being maſter of Dublin. The younger Bruce ſeems to have been violent in the exerciſe of his ſovereignty, and he w..s at laſt defeated and killed by Bermingham, the Engliſh general. After this Edward II. ruled Ireland with great moderation, and paſſed ſeveral excellent acts with regard to that country.

But during the minority of Edward III. the commotions were again renewed in Ireland, and not ſuppreſſed without great loſs and diſgrace on the ſide of the Engliſh. In 1333 a rebellion broke out, in which the Engliſh inhabitants had no inconſiderable ſhare. A ſucceſſion of vigorous, brave governors, at laſt quieted the inſurgents; and about the year 1361, prince Lionel, ſon to Edward III. having married the heireſs of Ulſter, was ſent over to govern Ireland, and if poſſible, to reduce its inhabitants to an entire conformity with the laws of England. In this he made a great progreſs, but did not entirely accompliſh it. It appears, at this time, that the Iriſh were in a very flouriſhing condition, and that one of the greateſt grievances they complained of was, that the Engliſh ſent over men of mean birth to govern them. In 1394, Richard II. finding that the execution of his deſpotic ſchemes in England muſt be abortive without farther ſupport, paſſed over to Ireland with an army of 34,000 men, well armed and appointed. As he made no uſe of force, the Iriſh looked upon his preſence to be a high compliment to their nation, and admired the magnificence of his court. Richard, on the other hand, courted them by all the arts he could employ, and beſtowed the honour of knighthood on their chiefs. In ſhort, he behaved ſo as entirely to win their affections. But in 1399, after having acted in a very deſpotic manner in England, he undertook a freſh expedition to Ireland, to revenge the death of his lord lieutenant, the earl of March, who had been killed by the wild Iriſh. His army again ſtruck the natives with conſternation, and they threw themſelves upon his mercy. It was during this expedition, that the duke of Lancaſter landed in England; and Richard upon his return, finding himſelf deſerted by his Engliſh ſubjects on account of his tyranny, and that he could not depend upon the Iriſh, ſurrendered his crown to his rival.

The Iriſh, after Richard's death, ſtill retained a warm affection for the houſe of York; and, upon the revival of that family's claim to the crown, embraced its cauſe. Edward IV. made the earl of Deſmond lord lieutenant of Ireland for his ſervices againſt the Ormond party and other adherents of the houſe of Lancaſter, and he was the *firſt Iriſh chieftain* that obtained this honour. Even the acceſſion of Henry VII. to the crown of England did not reconcile the Iriſh to his title as duke of Lancaſter: they therefore readily joined Lambert Simnel, who pretended to be the eldeſt ſon of Edward IV. but for this they paid dear, being defeated in their attempt to invade England. This made them ſomewhat cautious at firſt of joining Perkin Warbeck, notwithſtanding his plauſible pretences to be the duke of York, ſecond ſon of Edward IV. He was, however, at laſt recogniſed as king by the Iriſh; and, in the preceding pages, under the hiſtory of England, the reader may learn the event of his pretenſions. Henry behaved with moderation towards his favourers, and was contented with requiring the Iriſh nobility to take a freſh oath of allegiance to his government. This lenity had the deſired effect during the adminiſtration of the two earls of Kildare, the earl of Surry, and the earl of Ormond. Henry VIII. governed Ireland by ſupporting its chiefs againſt each other: but they were tampered with by the emperor Charles V. upon which Henry made his natural ſon, the duke of Richmond, his lord lieutenant. This did not prevent

vent the Iriſh from breaking out into rebellion in the year 1540, under Fitz Gerald, who had been lord deputy, and was won over by the emperor, but was at laſt hanged at Tyburn. After this the houſe of Auſtria found their account, in their quarrels with England, to form a ſtrong party among the Iriſh.

About the year 1542, James V. king of Scotland, formed ſome pretenſions to the crown of Ireland, and was favoured by a ſtrong party among the Iriſh themſelves. It is hard to ſay, had he lived, what the conſequence of his claim might have been. Henry underſtood that the Iriſh had a mean opinion of his dignity, as the kings of England had hitherto aſſumed no higher title than that of lords of Ireland. He therefore took that of king of Ireland, which had a great effect with the native Iriſh, who thought that allegiance was not due to a lord; and, to ſpeak the truth, it was ſomewhat ſurpriſing that this expedient was not thought of before. It produced a more perfect ſubmiſſion of the native Iriſh to Henry's government than ever had been known; and even O'Neil, who pretended to be ſucceſſor to the laſt paramount king of Ireland, ſwore allegiance to Henry, who created him earl of Tyrone.

The pope, however, and the princes of the houſe of Auſtria, by remitting money, and ſometimes ſending over troops to the Iriſh, ſtill kept up their intereſt in that kingdom, and drew from them vaſt numbers of men to their armies, where they proved as good ſoldiers as any in Europe. This created inexpreſſible difficulties to the Engliſh government, even in the reign of Edward VI. but it is remarkable, that the Reformation took place in the Engliſh part of Ireland with little or no oppoſition. The Iriſh ſeem to have been very quiet during the reign of queen Mary; but they proved thorns in the ſide of queen Elizabeth. The perpetual diſputes ſhe had with the Roman catholics, both at home and abroad, gave her great uneaſineſs; and the pope and the houſe of Auſtria always found new reſources againſt her in Ireland. The Spaniards poſſeſſed themſelves of Kinſale; and the rebellions of Tyrone, who baffled and outwitted her favourite general the earl of Eſſex, are well known in Engliſh hiſtory.

The lord deputy Mountjoy, who ſucceeded Eſſex, was the firſt Engliſhman who gave a mortal blow to the practices of the Spaniards in Ireland, by defeating them and the Iriſh before Kinſale, and bringing Tyrone priſoner to England; where he was pardoned by queen Elizabeth in 1602. This lenity, ſhown to ſuch an offender, is a proof of the dreadful apprehenſions Elizabeth had from the popiſh intereſt in Ireland. James I. confirmed the poſſeſſions of the Iriſh; but ſuch was the influence of the pope and the Spaniards, that the earls of Tyrone and Tyrconnel, and their party, planned a new rebellion, and attempted to ſeize the caſtle of Dublin; but their plot being diſcovered, their chiefs fled beyond ſeas. They were not idle abroad; for in 1608 they inſtigated ſir Calim O'Dogharty to a freſh rebellion, by promiſing him ſpeedy ſupplies of men and money from Spain. Sir Calim was killed in the diſpute, and his adherents were taken and executed. The attainders of the Iriſh rebels, which paſſed in the reigns of James and Elizabeth, veſted in the crown 511,465 acres, in the ſeveral counties of Donegal, Tyrone, Colerain, Fermanagh, Cavan, and Armagh: and enabled the king to make that Proteſtant plantation in the North of Ireland, which now, from the moſt rebellious province of the kingdom, is the moſt quiet and reformed.

Thoſe prodigious attainders, however juſt and neceſſary they might be, operated fatally for the Engliſh in the reign of Charles I. The Iriſh Roman Catholics in general were influenced by their prieſts to hope not

only to repoſſeſs the lands of their forefathers, but to reſtore the popiſh religion in Ireland. They therefore entered into a deep and deteſtable conſpiracy for maſſacreing all the Engliſh proteſtants in that kingdom. In this they were encouraged by the unhappy diſſenſions that broke out between the king and his parliaments in England and Scotland. Their bloody plan being diſcovered by the Engliſh government at Dublin, prevented that city from falling into their hands. They, however, partly executed, in 1641, their horrid ſcheme of maſſacre; but authors have not agreed as to the numbers who were murdered; perhaps they have been exaggerated by warm proteſtant writers, ſome of whom have mounted the number of the ſufferers to 40,000; other accounts ſpeak of 10,000 or 12,000, and ſome have diminiſhed that number *. What followed in conſequence of this rebellion, and the reduction of Ireland by Cromwell, who retaliated the cruelties of the Iriſh Papiſts upon themſelves, belongs to the hiſtory of England. It is certain that they ſmarted ſo ſeverely, that they were quiet during the reign of Charles II. His popiſh ſucceſſor and brother James II. even after the Revolution took place, found an aſylum in Ireland; and was encouraged to hope, that, by the aſſiſtance of the natives there, he might remount his throne: but he was deceived, and his own puſillanimity co-operated with his diſappointment. He was driven out of Ireland by his ſon-in-law, after the battle of the Boyne, the only victory that king William ever gained in perſon; a victory, however, on which depended the ſafety of the proteſtant religion, and the liberties of the Britiſh empire. Had James been victorious, he probably would have been reinſtated on the throne, and nothing elſe could be expected than that, being irritated by oppoſition, victorious over his enemies, and free from every reſtraint, he would have trampled upon all rights, civil and religious, and purſued more arbitrary deſigns than before. The army of William conſiſted of 36,000 men, that of James of 33,000, but advantageouſly ſituated. James, it is true, fought at the head of an undiſciplined rabble: but his French auxiliaries were far from behaving as heroes. It muſt be acknowledged, however, that he left both the field and the kingdom too ſoon for a brave man.

The forfeitures that fell to the crown, on account of the Iriſh rebellions and the Revolution, are almoſt incredible; and had the acts of parliament which gave them away been ſtrictly enforced, Ireland muſt have been peopled with Britiſh inhabitants. But many political reaſons occurred for not driving the Iriſh to deſpair. The friends of the Revolution and the Proteſtant religion were ſufficiently gratified out of the forfeited eſtates. Too many of the Roman Catholics might have been forced abroad; and it was proper that a due balance ſhould be preſerved between the Roman Catholic and the Proteſtant intereſt. It was therefore thought prudent to relax the reins of government, and not to put the forfeitures too rigorouſly into execution. The experience of half a century has confirmed the wiſdom of the above conſiderations. The lenity of the meaſures purſued in regard to the Iriſh Roman Catholics, and the great pains taken for the inſtruction of their children, with the progreſs which knowledge

* Mr. Guthrie's account of the numbers killed in the Iriſh maſſacre is much below that generally given. Mr. Hume, after enumerating the various barbarities practiſed by the Papiſts upon the Proteſtants, ſays, "by ſome computations, thoſe, who periſhed by all thoſe cruelties, are made to amount to an hundred and fifty, or two hundred thouſand; by the moſt moderate, and probably the moſt reaſonable account, they muſt have been near 40,000." Hiſt. of England, vol. vi. p. 377. edit. 8vo. 1763.

and

and the arts have made in that country, have greatly diminiſhed the popiſh intereſt. The ſpirit of induſtry has enabled the Iriſh to know their own ſtrength and importance; to which ſome accidental circumſtances have concurred. All her ports were opened for the exportation of wool and woollen yarn to any part of Great Britain; and of late years, acts of parliament have been made occaſionally for permitting the importation of ſalt beef, pork, butter, cattle, and tallow, from Ireland to Great Britain.

But though ſome laws and regulations had occaſionally taken place favourable to Ireland, it muſt be acknowledged, that the inhabitants of that country laboured under conſiderable grievances, in conſequence of ſundry unjuſt and injudicious reſtraints of the parliament of England, reſpecting their trade. Theſe reſtraints had injured Ireland without benefiting Great Britain. The Iriſh had been prohibited from manufacturing their own wool, in order to favour the woollen manufactory of England; the conſequence of which was, that the Iriſh wool was ſmuggled over into France, and the people of that country were thereby enabled to rival us in our woollen manufacture, and to deprive us of a part of that trade. An embargo had alſo been laid on the exportation of proviſions from Ireland, which had been extremely prejudicial to that kingdom. The diſtreſſes of the Iriſh manufacturers, as well as thoſe of Great Britain, had likewiſe been much increaſed by the conſequences of the American war. Theſe circumſtances occaſioned great murmuring in Ireland, and ſome attempts were made for the relief of the inhabitants of that kingdom in the Britiſh parliament, but for ſome time without ſucceſs; for a partiality in favour of the trade in England prevented juſtice from being done to Ireland. But ſeveral incidents, which happened afterwards, at length operated ſtrongly in favour of that kingdom. When a large body of the king's troops had been withdrawn from Ireland, in order to be employed in the American war, a conſiderable number of Iriſh gentlemen, farmers, traders, and other perſons, armed and formed themſelves into volunteer companies and aſſociations, for the defence of Ireland againſt any foreign invaders. By degrees, theſe volunteer aſſociations became numerous and well-diſciplined; and it was ſoon diſcovered, that they were inclined to maintain their rights at home, as well as to defend themſelves againſt foreign enemies. When theſe armed aſſociations became numerous and formidable, the Iriſh began to aſſume a higher tone than that to which they had before been accuſtomed; and it was ſoon manifeſt, that their remonſtrances met with unuſual attention, both from their own parliament and from that of Great Britain. The latter, on the 11th of May, 1779, preſented an addreſs to the king, recommending to his majeſty's moſt ſerious conſideration the diſtreſſed and impoveriſhed ſtate of the loyal and well deſerving people of Ireland, and deſiring him to direct that there ſhould be prepared and laid before parliament, ſuch particulars relative to the trade and manufactures of Great Britain and Ireland, as ſhould enable the national wiſdom to purſue effectual meaſures for promoting the common ſtrength, wealth, and commerce of his majeſty's ſubjects in both kingdoms. To this addreſs the king returned a favourable anſwer: and in October, the ſame year, both houſes of the Iriſh parliament alſo preſented addreſſes to his majeſty, in which they declared, that nothing but granting Ireland a free trade could ſave it from ruin. Notwithſtanding which, it being ſoon after ſuſpected by many of the people of that kingdom, that the members of their parliament would not exert themſelves with vigour in promoting the intereſts of the nation, a very daring and numerous mob aſſembled before the parliament houſe in Dublin, crying out for a

free trade and *a ſhort money-bill.* They aſſaulted the members, and endeavoured to compel them to ſwear that they would ſupport the intereſt of their country by voting for a ſhort money-bill; and they demoliſhed the houſe of the attorney-general. The tumult at length ſubſided; and two Iriſh money-bills, for ſix months only, were ſent over to England, where they paſſed the great ſeal, and were immediately returned, without any diſſatisfaction being expreſſed by government at this limited grant.

In the mean time the members of the oppoſition, in the Engliſh parliament, very ſtrongly repreſented the neceſſity of an immediate attention to the complaints of the people of Ireland, and of a compliance with their wiſhes. The arguments on this ſide of the queſtion were alſo enforced by the accounts which came from Ireland, that the volunteer aſſociations in that kingdom amounted to forty thouſand men, unpaid, ſelf-appointed, and independent of government, well armed and accoutred, daily improving in diſcipline, and which afterwards increaſed to eighty thouſand. The Britiſh miniſtry appeared for ſome time to be undetermined what part they ſhould act in this important buſineſs; but the remembrance of the fatal effects of rigorous meaſures reſpecting America, and the very critical ſituation of Great Britain, at length induced the firſt lord of the treaſury to bring in ſuch bills as were calculated to afford effectual commercial relief to the people of Ireland. Laws were accordingly paſſed, by which all thoſe acts were repealed, which had prohibited the exportation of woollen manufactures from Ireland, and other acts by which the trade of that kingdom to foreign countries had been reſtrained; and it was likewiſe enacted, that a trade between Ireland and the Britiſh colonies in America and the Weſt Indies, and the Britiſh ſettlements on the coaſt of Africa, ſhould be allowed to be carried on in the ſame manner, and ſubject to ſimilar regulations and reſtrictions with that carried on between Great Britain and the ſaid colonies and ſettlements.

Theſe laws in favour of Ireland were received with much joy and exultation in that kingdom; and the Iriſh nation being indulged in their requiſitions reſpecting trade, now began alſo to aim at important conſtitutional reformations; and in various counties and cities of Ireland, the right of the Britiſh parliament to make laws which ſhould bind that kingdom was denied in public reſolutions. By degrees, the ſpirit which had been manifeſted by the Iriſh parliament, ſeemed a little to ſubſide: and a remarkable inſtance of this was, their agreeing to a perpetual mutiny-bill, for the regulation of the Iriſh army, though that of England had always been paſſed, with a true conſtitutional caution, only from year to year. This was much exclaimed againſt by ſome of the Iriſh patriots; and it is indeed not eaſy to clear their parliament from the charge of inconſiſtency: but this bill was afterwards repealed, and the commercial advantages afforded them by late acts in their favour have greatly contributed to promote the proſperity of Ireland. As before obſerved, by the act repealing the ſtatute of the 6th of George I. they are now fully and completely emancipated from the juriſdiction of the Britiſh parliament. The appellant juriſdiction of the Britiſh houſe of peers in Iriſh cauſes was likewiſe given up. But though the Iriſh have obtained ſuch great extenſion of their liberties, it is queſtioned whether it will terminate to their country's real advantage: their parties and diſſenſions increaſe, and the controverſy of England with that kingdom is far from being ended; much remains to eſtabliſh ſuch a commercial and political connection as will promote the intereſt and happineſs of both countries, and make them one great, ſtable, and invulnerable body. Every change of adminiſtration in

England

Plate X.*

FRANCE
divided into
CIRCLES
and
DEPARTMENTS.

Names of the Metropolitan Circles.

1 Circle of Paris
2 ____ the Coasts of the Channel
3 ____ the North East
4 ____ the East
5 ____ the South East
6 ____ the Coasts of the Mediterranean
7 ____ the South
8 ____ the South West
9 ____ the North West
10 ____ the Centre

Explanation.

Boundaries of the Metropolitan Circles
Do of the Departments
Seats of the Metropolitans
Do of the Bishops
Towns giving a Name to a District
Do having a Tribunal of Justice
The principal place in each Department in Print as Caen

British Statute Miles.
10 20 40 50 60 70
French Leagues 25 to a Degree.
5 10 20 30 40

Longitude West from London

2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Ostend Bruges Ghent Malines Louvain Mastrich Cologne Aix la Chapelle Bonn Limburg Spa Liege Namur Bruſsels Tournay Lille Bethune Arras Douay Mons Valenciennes Cambray Le Quesnoy Peronne Guise Rocroy Chemille Sedan Longwy Mezieres Ardennes Stenay Longuion Thionville Briey Estain Verdun Metz Boulay Saar Louis Worms Spire Manheim Philipsbury Weiſſenbourg Mayence Coblentz Treves Landau Deux Ponts Hagueneau Saverne Strasbourg Schlestat Colmar Epinal Remiremont Jussey Vesoul Belfort Altkirch Montbeliard Befançon Soleure Neuchatel Berne Lausane Sion Geneva Turin Saluzzo Albinga Nice Grasse Antibes Toulon Brignoles Marſeilles Arles Aix Salon Avignon Orange Carpentras Cavaillon Apt Pertuis Manosque Digne Barcelonette Embrun Briançon Gap Grenoble Romans Valence Tournon Annonay Privas Le Puy Aurillac St Flour Mende Rhodez Florac Alais Uzes Nismes Montpelier Beziers Agde Castelnaudary Carcaſſone Narbonne Perpignan Prades Coliboure Quillan Lodeve Castres Alby Rhodez Milhau Mont Luçon Montaigu Riom Clermont Issoire Ambert Brioude Thiers Chateau Thierry Soissons Laon Coucy Rheims Chalons Epernay Meaux Paris Sens Troyes Nogent Bar sur Aube Bar sur Seine Joigny Auxerre Tonnerre Avallon Vezelay Clamecy Nevers Chateau Chinon Decize Bourbon Lancy Moulins Bourbon Charolles Macon Bourg Roanne Villefranche Lyon Montbrisson St Etienne Vienne Tain Chambery Mt Blanc Annecy Belley Bourgoin Amberieux Chatillon sur Seine Is sur Thil Dijon Beaune Dole Salins Arbois Poligny Lons Chalons Gex St Claude Pontarlier Quingey Orgelet Bourg en Bresse Ferrette Belfort Altkirch Soleure Neuchatel Berne Lausane Sion Geneva Turin Saluzzo Albinga Nice Grasse Antibes Frejus Brignoles Toulon Cape Taillat Hyeres Marſeilles Mouths of the Rhone Mouths of the Var Martigues Salon Aix Apt Carpentras Vaucluse Orange Vaison Nions Die Dromon R. Grest Valence Romans Tournon Annonay Le Puy Issengeaux St Flour Aurillac Murat Maurs Figeac Cahors Montauban Castelnau Lectoure Auch Condom Agen Villeneuve Tonneins Marmande Bergerac Libourne Bordeaux Blaye Rochefort Saintes Cognac Angoulême Barbezieux Jonzac Pons Rochelle Marans Niort Fontenay Luçon Sables d'Olonne Les Sables Noirmoutier Isle de Rhe Isle d'Oleron Isle d'Aix Isle de Ré Isle de Bouin Isle de Noirmoutier Isle de Yeu Isle de Belle Isle Isle de Groix Isle de Quiberon Isle de Houat Isle de Hoedic Isle de Dumet Isle de Batz Isle de Ouessant Isle de Molene Isle de Sein Isle de Glenan Isle de Penmarch Isle de Groix Isle de Belle Isle Isle de Quiberon Isle de Houat Isle de Hoedic Isle de Dumet Isle de Batz Isle de Ouessant Isle de Molene Isle de Sein Isle de Glenan Isle de Penmarch

Flanders Artois Picardy Champagne Lorrain Alsace Burgundy Franche Comté Switzerland Savoy Italy Dauphiny Provence Languedoc Guienne Gascony Navarre Roussillon Foix Bearn Limousin Auvergne Lyonnois Forez Beaujolais Nivernois Orleanois Berry Marche Bourbonnois Maine Anjou Touraine Poitou Aunis Saintonge Angoumois Perigord Rouergue Quercy Agenois Armagnac Bigorre Comminges Foix Roussillon Languedoc Provence Dauphiny Savoy Switzerland Italy Mediterranean Sea Bay of Biscay English Channel

Calais Pas de Calais Somme Aisne Ardennes Oise Seine & Oise Seine & Marne Marne Meuse Moselle Lower Rhine Upper Rhine Vosges Haute Saone Doubs Jura Ain Rhone Saone & Loire Allier Cher Nyevre Cote d'Or Yonne Loiret Eure & Loire Loire & Cher Indre Vienne Deux Sevres Charente Charente Inferieure Dordogne Lot Aveiron Tarn Lozere Gard Herault Aude Pyrenees Upper Loire Puy de Dome Cantal Correze Upper Vienne Creuse Indre & Loire Sarthe Mayenne Loire Inferieure Vendee Ille & Vilaine Morbihan Finistere Cotes du Nord

Paris Versailles Fontainebleau Melun Meaux Provins Sezanne Vitry Chalons Bar le Duc Commercy St Mihiel Toul Nancy Luneville Vic Dieuze Morhange Sarbourg Pont a Mousson Metz Thionville Longuion Briey Estain Verdun Rheims Soissons Laon Guise Peronne Amiens Abbeville Montreuil Boulogne Calais Dunkirk Gravelines St Omer Bethune Lille Douay Arras Cambray Valenciennes Mons Tournay Bruges Ostend Ghent Malines Louvain Mastrich Liege Namur Bruſsels Aix la Chapelle Cologne Bonn Coblentz Mayence Worms Spire Manheim Philipsbury Landau Deux Ponts Weiſſenbourg Hagueneau Saverne Strasbourg Schlestat Colmar Epinal Remiremont Vesoul Belfort Altkirch Montbeliard Befançon Soleure Neuchatel Berne Lausane Sion Geneva Turin Saluzzo Albinga Nice Grasse Antibes Frejus Brignoles Toulon Cape Taillat Hyeres Marſeilles Mouths of the Rhone Martigues Salon Aix Apt Carpentras Vaucluse Orange Vaison Nions Die Dromon R. Grest Valence Romans Tournon Annonay Le Puy Issengeaux St Flour Aurillac Murat Maurs Figeac Cahors Montauban Castelnau Lectoure Auch Condom Agen Villeneuve Tonneins Marmande Bergerac Libourne Bordeaux Blaye Rochefort Saintes Cognac Angoulême Barbezieux Jonzac Pons Rochelle Marans Niort Fontenay Luçon Sables d'Olonne Les Sables Noirmoutier Isle de Rhe Isle d'Oleron Isle d'Aix Isle de Ré Isle de Bouin Isle de Noirmoutier Isle de Yeu Isle de Belle Isle Isle de Groix Isle de Quiberon Isle de Houat Isle de Hoedic Isle de Dumet Isle de Batz Isle de Ouessant Isle de Molene Isle de Sein Isle de Glenan Isle de Penmarch

2 3 4 5 6 7 8

50 49 48 47 46 45 44 43

England hath produced new lord lieutenants among them, but harmony and confidence are not yet reſtored.

In the year 1783, the government, the nobility, and the people of Ireland, vied with each other in countenancing and giving an aſylum to many families of the Geneveſe who were baniſhed from their city, and to others who voluntarily exiled themſelves for the cauſe of liberty, not willing to ſubmit to an ariſtocracy of their own citizens, ſupported by the ſwords of France and Sardinia. A large tract of land in the county of Waterford was allotted for their reception, a town was marked out, entitled NEW GENEVA, and a ſum of money granted for erecting the neceſſary buildings. Theſe preparations for their accommodation were, however, rendered ultimately uſeleſs, by ſome miſunderſtandings (not fully comprehended) which aroſe between the parties; and the ſcheme accordingly fell to the ground.

Upon the occaſion of the unhappy malady with which the king was afflicted, the lords and commons of Ireland came to a reſolution to addreſs the prince of Wales, requeſting him to take upon him the government of that kingdom, during his majeſty's indiſpoſition, under the ſtyle and title of PRINCE REGENT of IRELAND, and to exerciſe and adminiſter, according to the laws and the conſtitution of the realm, all the royal authorities, juriſdictions, and prerogatives, to the crown and government thereof belonging. The marquis of Buckingham being then lord lieutenant, having declined preſenting the addreſs, as contrary to his oath and the laws, the two houſes reſolved on appointing delegates from each: the lords appointed the duke of Leinſter, and the earl of Charlemont; and the commons, four of their members. The delegates proceeded to London, and, in February 1789, preſented the addreſs to his royal highneſs, by whom they were moſt graciouſly received; but his majeſty having, to the infinite joy of all his ſubjects, recovered from his ſevere indiſpoſition, the prince returned them an anſwer fraught with the warmeſt ſentiments of regard for the kingdom, and of gratitude to parliament, for the generous manner in which they propoſed inveſting him with the regency, but, that the happy recovery of his royal father had now rendered his acceptance of it unneceſſary.

The parliament of Ireland has extended liberal indulgences to the Roman Catholics of that kingdom, by eſtabliſhing the legality of intermarriage between them and the Proteſtants, by admitting them to the profeſſion of the law, and the benefit of education, and by removing all obſtructions upon their induſtry in trade and manufactures. A reciprocal preference in the corn trade with Britain has been eſtabliſhed. Further progreſs has been made in checking the immoderate uſe of ſpirituous liquors; and ſome wiſe inſtitutions have been ordained for the regulation of charitable foundations.

FRANCE.

HAVING gone over the Britiſh iſles, we ſhall now return to the continent, beginning with the extenſive and mighty kingdom of France, being the neareſt to England; though part of Germany and Poland lies to the northward of France.

SITUATION and EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 600	between	5 West and 8 East longitude.
Breadth 500		42 and 51 North latitude.

Containing 160,374 ſquare miles, with 155 inhabitants to each.

BOUNDARIES.] It is bounded by the Engliſh Channel and the Netherlands on the North; by Germany, Switzerland, and Italy, Eaſt; by the Mediterranean and the Pyrenean mountains, which divide it from Spain, South; and by the Bay of Biſcay, Weſt.

DIVISIONS.] The ancient Provinces of this kingdom have been divided by the national aſſembly into 83 departments *, as follow:

	Departments.	Chief Towns.
Isle of France.	Paris	Paris. N.L. 48° 50′ E.L. 2° 25′
	Seine and Ouse	Verſailles
	Seine and Marne	Melun
	Oiſe	Beauvais
	Aiſne	Laon
	Somme, *Picardy*	Amiens
	Cal. Straits, *Artois*	Arras
	North, *Flanders*	Liſle
Normandy.	Lower Seine	Rouen
	Calvados	Caen
	Orne	Alençon
	Eure	Evreux
	Channel	Coutance
Brittany.	Isle and Villaine	Rennes
	Lower Loire	Nantes
	Finiſterre	Breſt
	North Coaſt	St. Brieux
	Morbihan	Vannes
Poitou.	Vienne	Poitiers
	Vendee	Fontenai-compte
	Two Sevres	Niort
	Lower Charentl	Santes
Gascon. Guienne.	Gironde	Bourdeaux
	Upper Vienne	Limoges
	Lot and Garonne	Agen
	Avieron	Rodez
	Dordogne	Perigueux
	Lot	Cahors
	Gers	Auch
	Upper Pyrenees	Tarbe
	Lower Pyrenees	Pau
	Landes	Marſan
	Eaſt Pyrenees	Perpignan
Languedoc.	Upper Garonne	Toulouſe
	Gard	Niſmes
	Herault	Montpelier
	Arriege	Foix
	Tarne	Caſtres
	Aude	Carcaſſonne
	Lozere	Mende
Provence.	Mouths of Rhone	Aix
	Var	Toulon
	Lower Alps	Digne

	Inland Departments.	Chief Towns.
Alſace. Lorraine.	Moſelle	Metz
	Vosges	Epinal
	Meurte	Nanci
	Meuſe	Barleduc
	Lower Rhine	Straſbourg
	Upper Rhine	Colmar
Champagne. Auver. Dauphine. Burgundy. Compte. Franche.	Aube	Troyes
	Marne	Châlons
	Upper Marne	Chaumont
	Ardennes	Mezieres
	Doi.	Beſançon
	Jura	Dol
	Upper Saone	Veſoul
	Cote D'Or	Dijon
	Saone and Loire	Macon
	Yonne	Auxerre
	Iſere	Grenoble
	Drome	Romans
	Upper Alps	Gap
	Ardeche	Privas
	Rhone and Loire	Lyons
	Puy de Dome	Clermont
	Cantal	St. Flour
	Upper Loire *Vel.*	Le Puy
	Coreze, *Limoſin*	Tulle
	Creuſe, *Marche*	Gueret
	Charente, *Ang.*	Angoulême
	Allier, *Bourbon.*	Moulins
Orleans. Marne. Berry.	Cher	Bourges
	Ain	Bourg
	Indre	Chateauroux
	Indre & Loire *To.*	Tours
	Sarte	Le Mans
	Mayenne	Laval
	Maine and Loire	Angers
	Loiret	Orleans
	Eure and Loire	Chartres
	Loire and Cher	Blois
	Nievre, *Nivernois*	Nevers
	Corsica iſland	Baſtia.
	Avignon and Venaiſin are in this department	

* France, nearly a ſquare, is divided into 83 DEPARTMENTS, including Corſica. Every department is ſubdivided into DISTRICTS, in all 547; and each diſtrict into CANTONS. The above are the chief towns of each department, and alſo the diſtricts. The new department of Savoy, which forms the 84th, is not added, it being at preſent uncertain whether it will continue its connection with France.

NAME

NAME AND CLIMATE.] France took its name from the Francs, or *Freemen*, a German nation, reſtleſs and enterpriſing, who conquered the Gauls, the ancient inhabitants: and the Roman force not being able to repreſs them, they were permitted to ſettle in the country by treaty. By its ſituation, it is the moſt compact kingdom perhaps in the world, and well-fitted for every purpoſe both of power and commerce; and ſince the beginning of the 15th century, the inhabitants have availed themſelves of many of their natural advantages. The air, particularly that of the interior parts of the kingdom, is in general mild and wholeſome; but ſome late authors think it is not nearly ſo ſalubrious as is pretended; and it muſt be acknowledged, that the French have been but too ſucceſsful in giving the inhabitants of Great Britain falſe prepoſſeſſions in favour of their own country. It muſt indeed be owned, that their weather is more clear and ſettled than in England. In the northern provinces, however, the winters are more intenſely cold, and the inhabitants not ſo well ſupplied with firing, which in France is chiefly of wood.

SOIL AND WATER.] France is happy in an excellent ſoil, which produces corn, wine, oil, and almoſt every luxury of life. Some of their fruits have a higher flavour than thoſe of England; but neither the paſturage nor tillage are comparable to ours. The heats in many parts burn up the ground, ſo that it has no verdure, and the ſoil barely produces as much rye and cheſnuts as ſerve to ſubſiſt the poor inhabitants; but the chief misfortune attending the French ſoil is, that the inhabitants having but a precarious ſecurity in their own property, do not apply themſelves ſufficiently to cultivation and agriculture. But nature has done wonders for them, and both animal and vegetable productions are found there in vaſt plenty.

Notwithſtanding great efforts made in agriculture, much of the land remains uncultivated; and although ſome provinces, as Alſace and Languedoc, yield an exuberance of corn, it is frequently imported. Indeed all Europe, one year with another, does not produce ſufficient corn for its own conſumption, and it is neceſſary to have ſupplies from the luxuriant harveſt of America.

The French have of late endeavoured to ſupply the loſs ariſing from their precarious title to their lands, by inſtituting academies of agriculture, and propoſing premiums for its improvement, as in England; but thoſe expedients, however ſucceſsful they may be in particular inſtances, can never become of national utility in any but a free country, where the huſbandman is ſure of enjoying the fruit of his labour, which is far from being the caſe in the preſent diſtracted ſtate of the country. No nation is better ſupplied than France is with wholeſome ſprings and water; of which the inhabitants make excellent uſe by the help of art and engines, for all the conveniencies of life. Of their canals and mineral waters, diſtinct notice will be hereafter taken.

MOUNTAINS.] The chief mountains in France, or its borders, are the Alps, which divide France from Italy; the Pyrenees, which divide France from Spain; Vauge, which divide Lorrain from Burgundy and Alſace; Mount Jura, which divides Franche Compté from Switzerland; the Cevennes, in the province of Languedoc; and Mount D'Or in the province of Auvergne.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The principal rivers in France are the Loire, the Rhone, the Garonne, and the Seine. The Loire takes its courſe north and north-weſt, being, with all its windings, from its ſource to the ſea, computed to run about 500 miles. The Rhone flows on the ſouth-weſt to Lyons, and then runs on due ſouth till it falls into the Mediterranean. The

Garonne rises in the Pyrenean mountains, takes its course, first north-east, and has a communication with the Mediterranean by means of a canal, the work of Lewis XIV. The Seine, soon after its rise, runs to the north-west, visiting Troyes, Paris, and Rouen, in its way, and falls into the English Channel at Havre. To these we may add the Saone, which falls into the Rhone at Lyons; the Charente which rises near Havre de Grace, and discharges itself in the Bay of Biscay at Rochfort. The Rhine, which rises in Switzerland, is the eastern boundary between France and Germany, and receives the Moselle and the Sarte in its passage. The Somme, which runs north-west through Picardy, and falls into the English Channel below Abbeville. The Var, which rises in the Alps, and runs south, dividing France from Italy, and falling into the Mediterranean, west of Nice. The Adour runs from east to west, through Gascoigne, and falls into the Bay of Biscay, below Bayonne.

The vast advantage both in commerce and conveniency, which arises to France from those rivers, is wonderfully improved by the artificial rivers and canals which form the chief glory of the reign of Louis XIV. That of Languedoc was begun in the year 1666, and completed in 1680; it was intended for a communication between the ocean and the Mediterranean, for the speedier passage of the French fleet: but though it was carried on at an immense expense, for 100 miles, over hills and vallies, and even through a mountain in one place, it has not answered that purpose. By the canal of Calais, travellers easily pass by water from thence to St. Omer, Graveline, Dunkirk, Ypres, and other places. The canal of Orleans is another noble work, and runs a course of eighteen leagues, to the immense benefit of the public and the royal revenue. France abounds with other canals of the like kind, which render her inland navigation inexpressibly commodious and beneficial.

Few lakes are found in this country. There is one at the top of a hill near Alegre, which the vulgar report to be bottomless. There is another at Issoire, in Auvergne; and one at La Besse, in which if you throw a stone, it causes a noise like thunder.

MINERAL WATERS, AND REMARKABLE SPRINGS. The waters of Bareges, which lie near the borders of Spain, under the Pyrenean mountains, have of late been preferred to all the others of France, for the recovery of health. The best judges think, however, that the cures performed by them are more owing to their accidental success with some great persons, and the salubrity of the air and soil, than to the virtues of the waters. The waters of Sultzbach, in Alsace, are said to cure the palsy, weak nerves, and the stone. At Bagueiis, not far from Bareges, are several wholesome minerals and baths, to which people resort as to the English baths, at spring and autumn. Forges in Normandy is celebrated for its mineral waters; and those of St. Amand cure the gravel and obstructions. It would be endless to enumerate all the other real or pretended mineral wells in France, as well as many remarkable springs; but there is one near Aigne, in Auvergne, which boils violently, and makes a noise like water thrown upon lime; it has little or no taste, but has a poisonous quality, and the birds that drink of it die instantly.

METALS AND MINERALS.] France has many unworked *mines*, which would be very productive, if duly attended to, but at present do not yield minerals sufficient for consumption; steel alone is imported, to the annual value of 125,000l. Languedoc is said to contain veins of gold and silver. Alsace has mines of silver and copper, but they are too expensive to be wrought. Alabaster, black marble, jasper, and coal, are found

found in many parts of the kingdom. Bretagne abounds in mines of iron, copper, tin, and lead. Salt-petre is made in every part of the kingdom, and *ſea-ſalt* is now procured free from oppreſſive duty, but not remarkable for its purity. At Laverdau, in Cominges, there is a mine of chalk. At Berry there is a mine of oker, which ſerves for melting of metals, and for dying, particularly the beſt drab cloth: and in the provinces of Anjou are ſeveral quarries of fine white ſtone. Some excellent turquoiſes (the only gem that France produces) are found in Languedoc; and great care is taken to keep the mines of marble and free-ſtone open all over the kingdom.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND. France abounds in excellent roots, which are more proper for ſoups than thoſe of England. As to all kinds of ſeaſoning and ſallads, they are more plentiful, and in ſome places better than in England; they being, next to their vines, the chief object of their culture.

France produces excellent *fruit* of all kinds, particularly grapes, figs, prunes, cheſnuts, cyder in the northern provinces, and capers in the ſouthern. It produces annually, though not enough for conſumption, above twelve million pounds of tobacco, beſides hemp, flax, manna, ſaffron, and many drugs. Alſace, Burgundy, Lorraine, and eſpecially the Pyrenean mountains, ſupply it plentifully with timber and other wood. Silk is ſo plentifully produced, beſides what is imported, as to afford a conſiderable trade. The cattle and horſes are neither very numerous nor very good, but it has many flocks of fine *ſheep*; yet ſo great is the conſumption, that both ſheep and wool are imported. The province of Gaſtenois produces great quantities of ſaffron. The wines of Champagne, Burgundy, Bourdeaux, Gaſcony, and other provinces of France, are ſo well known, that they need only be mentioned. It is ſufficient to obſerve, that though they differ very ſenſibly in their taſte and properties, yet all of them are excellent, particularly thoſe of Champagne, Burgundy, Bourdeaux, Pontacke, Hermitage, and Frontiniac: and there are few conſtitutions, be they ever ſo valetudinary, to which ſome one or other of them is not adapted.

Wine, the ſtaple, is made to the value of 15,000,000l. annually, more than an eighth part of which, beſides brandy and vinegar, is exported. Olive oil is made in large quantities, particularly in the provinces next the Mediterranean; but the conſumption is ſo great, that much of it is imported from Italy; the inferior ſort ſupplies the ſoap manufactories, of which there are thirty-ſix at Marſeilles.

Oak, elm, aſh, and other timber, common in England, is found in France; but it is ſaid, that the internal parts of the kingdom begin to feel the want of fuel. A great deal of ſalt is made at Rhèe, and about Rochfort on the coaſt of Santoign. Languedoc produces an herb called kali, which, when burnt, makes excellent barilla, or pot-aſhes. The French formerly were famous for horticulture, but they are at preſent far inferior to the Engliſh both in the management and diſpoſition of their gardens. Prunes and capers are produced at Bourdeaux and near Toulon.

France contains few animals, either wild or tame, that are not to be found in England, excepting wolves. Their horſes, black cattle, and ſheep, are far inferior to the Engliſh; nor is the wool of their ſheep ſo fine. The hair and ſkin of the chamois, or mountain goats, are more valuable than thoſe of England. We know of no difference between the marine productions of France and thoſe of England, but that the former is not ſo well ſerved, even on the ſea-coaſts, with ſalt-water fiſh.

There

There is a conſiderable herring fiſhery and one for anchovies, to the annual amount of 83,000l. beſides more important fiſheries upon the coaſt of America and Newfoundland.

FORESTS.] The chief foreſts of France are thoſe of Orleans, which contains 14,000 acres of wood of various kinds, oak, elm, aſh, &c. and the foreſt of Fontainbleau near as large; and near Morchiſmoir is a foreſt of tall, ſtraight timber, of 4000 trees. Beſides theſe, large numbers of woods, ſome of them deſerving the name of foreſts, lie in different provinces; but too remote from ſea-carriage to be of much national utility.

POPULATION INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.] According to the lateſt and beſt calculations, France contains at preſent about 25,000,000 of inhabitants. It was lately ſuppoſed by ſome ſpeculative men, that the population of France had for many years been upon the decline; but, upon an accurate inveſtigation, the reverſe appeared to be fact; though this country certainly loſt a great number of valuable inhabitants, by the revocation of the edict of Nantes*. The proportion of the people of England to the people of France is certainly as $1\frac{3}{4}$ to one.

The French, in their perſons, are rather lower than their neighbours: but they are well proportioned and active, and more free than other nations, in general, from bodily deformities. The ladies are celebrated more for their ſprightly wit than perſonal beauty: the peaſantry in general are remarkably ordinary, and are beſt deſcribed by being contraſted with women of the ſame rank in England. The nobility and gentry accompliſh themſelves in the academical exerciſes of dancing, fencing, and riding; in the practice of which they excel all their neighbours in ſkill and gracefulneſs. They are fond of hunting; and the gentry have now left off their heavy jack-boots, their huge war-ſaddle, and monſtrous curb bridle in that exerciſe, and accommodate themſelves to the Engliſh manners.

The genius and manners of the French are well known, and have been the ſubject of many able pens. A national vanity is their predominant character: and they are perhaps the only people ever heard of, who have derived great utility from a national weakneſs. It ſupports them under misfortunes, and impels them to actions to which true courage inſpires other nations. This character, however, is conſpicuous only in the higher and middling ranks, where it produces excellent officers; for the common ſoldiers of France have few or no ideas of heroiſm. Hence it has been obſerved, with great juſtice, of the French and Engliſh, that the French officers will lead, if their ſoldiers will follow, and the Engliſh ſoldiers will follow, if their officers will lead.

The French affect freedom and wit; but faſhionable dreſſes and diverſions engroſs too much of their converſation. Their diverſions are much the ſame with thoſe of the Engliſh, but their gallantry is of a very different complexion. Their attention to the fair degenerates into groſs foppery in the men, and in the ladies it is kept up by admitting of indecent freedoms; but the ſeeming levities of both ſexes are ſeldom attended with that criminality which, to people not uſed to their manners, they ſeem to indi-

* In the year 1598, Henry IV. who was a proteſtant, and juſtly ſtyled the Great, after fighting his way to the crown of France, paſſed the famous edict of Nantes which ſecured the Proteſtants the free exerciſe of their religion; but his edict was revoked by Lewis XIV. which, with the ſucceeding perſecutions, drove the people to England, Holland, and other Proteſtant countries, where they eſtabliſhed the ſilk manufacture, to the great prejudice of the country that perſecuted them.

cate;

cate; nor are the husbands so indifferent, as we are apt to imagine about the conduct of their wives. The French are excessively credulous and litigious; but of all people in the world they bear adversity and reduction of circumstances with the best grace; though in prosperity many of them are apt to be insolent, vain, arbitrary, and imperious. An old French officer is an entertaining and instructive companion, and indeed the most rational species of all the French gentry.

The French have been much censured for insincerity; but this charge has been carried too far, and the imputation is generally owing to their excess of civility, which throws a suspicious light upon their candour. The French, in private life, have certainly many amiable characters, and a great number of instances of generosity and disinterestedness may be found amongst them.

It is doing the French no more than justice to acknowledge, that, as they are themselves polite, so they have given a polish to the ferocious manners and even virtues of other nations. They have long taken the lead in taste, fashion, and dress; but it seems now to be in the wane, and they themselves think very favourably of the English. Many in superior ranks of life are open to conviction, and examine things to the bottom. They saw, during the war before the last, the management of their armies, their finances, and fleets, with silent indignation, and their researches were favourable to the English. The conclusion of the peace of Fontainbleau, and the visits which they have since paid to England, have improved that good opinion; the courtiers themselves have fallen in with it; and, what some years ago would have been thought incredible, people of fashion in France now study the English language, and imitate them in their customs, amusements, dress, and buildings. They both imitate and admire our writers; the names of Bacon, Locke, Newton, Milton, Pope, Addison, Hume, Robertson, Richardson, and many others of the last and present century, are sacred among the French of any education; and, to say the truth, the writings of such men have equally contributed, with our military reputation, to raise the name of Great Britain to that degree in which it has been held of late by foreign nations, and to render our language more universal and even a necessary study among foreign nobility. But we cannot quit this article of the manners and customs of the French, without giving a more minute view of some peculiarities observable among that whimsical people in private life, and this from the remarks of a late ingenious traveller, Smollett, who was also distinguished by various other productions in polite literature.

"The natural levity of the French, says he, is reinforced by the most preposterous education, and the example of a giddy people, engaged in the most frivolous pursuits. A Frenchman is by some priest or monk taught to read his mother tongue, and to say his prayers in a language he does not understand. He learns to dance and to fence by the masters of those sciences. He becomes a complete connoisseur in dressing hair, and in adorning his own person, under the hands and instructions of his valet-de-chambre. If he learns to play upon the flute or fiddle, he is altogether irresistible. But he piques himself upon being polished above the natives of any other country, by his conversation with the fair sex. In the course of this communication, with which he is indulged from his tender years, he learns like a parrot, by rote, the whole circle of French compliments, which are a set of phrases, ridiculous even to a proverb; and these he throws out indiscriminately to all women without distinction, in the exercise

ercise of that kind of address, which is here distinguished by the name of gallantry. It is an exercise, by the repetition of which he becomes very pert, very familiar, and very impertinent. A Frenchman, in consequence of his mingling with the females from his infancy, not only becomes acquainted with all their customs and humours, but grows wonderfully alert in performing a thousand little offices, which are overlooked by other men, whose time hath been spent in making more valuable acquisitions. He enters, without ceremony, a lady's bed-chamber, while she is in bed, reaches her whatever she wants, airs her shift, and helps to put it on. He attends at her toilette, regulates the distribution of her patches, and advises where to lay on the paint. If he visits her when she is dressed, and perceives the least impropriety in her coiffure, he insists on adjusting it with his own hands. If he sees a curl, or even a single hair amiss, he produces his comb, his sciffars, and pomatum, and sets it to rights with the dexterity of a professed frizeur. He squires her to every place she visits, either on business or pleasure; and, by dedicating his whole time to her, renders himself necessary to her occasions. In short, of all the coxcombs on the face of the earth, a French *petit maitre* is the most impertinent; and they are all *petits maitres*, from the marquis who glitters in lace and embroidery, to the *garçon barbier* (barber's boy) covered with meal, who struts with his hair in a long queue, and his hat under his arm.

"A Frenchman will sooner part with his religion than his hair. Even the soldiers in France wear a long queue, and this ridiculous foppery has descended to the lowest class of people. The boy who cleans shoes at the corner of a street, has a tail of this kind hanging down to his rump; and the beggar who drives an ass, wears his hair *en queue*, though, perhaps, he has neither shirt nor breeches.

"I shall only mention one custom more, which seems to carry human affectation to the very fartheſt verge of folly and extravagance: that is, the manner in which the faces of the ladies are primed and painted. It is generally supposed, that part of the fair sex in other countries make use of *fard* and vermilion for very different purposes; namely, to help a bad or faded complexion, to heighten the graces, or conceal the defects of nature, as well as the ravages of time. I shall not inquire whether it is just and honest to impose in this manner on mankind; if it is not honest, it may be allowed to be artful and politic, and shows, at least, a desire of being agreeable. But to lay it on as the fashion in France prescribes to all the ladies of condition, who cannot appear without this badge of distinction, is to disguise themselves in such a manner, as to render them odious and detestable to every spectator who has the least relish left for nature and propriety. As for the *fard* or *white*, with which their necks and shoulders are plaistered, it may be in some measure excusable, as their skins are naturally brown, or sallow; but the *rouge*, which is daubed on their faces, from the chin up to the eyes, without the least art or dexterity, not only destroys all distinction of features, but renders the aspect really frightful, or at least conveys nothing but ideas of disgust and aversion. Without this horrible mask, no married lady is admitted at court, or in any polite assembly; and it is a mark of distinction which none of the lower classes dare assume."

The above picture of the manners of the French nation is drawn with wit and spirit; and is in some respects highly characteristic; but it is certainly not a flattering portrait. With all their defects, the French have many good qualities; politeness of manners, attention to strangers, and a general

general taſte for literature among thoſe in the better ranks of life. The French literati have great influence even in the gay and diſſipated city of Paris. Their opinions not only determine the merit of works of taſte and ſcience, but they have conſiderable weight with reſpect to the manners and ſentiments of people of rank, and of the public in general, and conſequently are not without effect in the meaſures of government.

Dress.] The French dreſs of both ſexes is ſo well known, that it is needleſs to expatiate upon them here; but, indeed, their dreſs in cities and towns is ſo variable, that it is next to impoſſible to deſcribe it. They certainly have more invention in that particular than any of their neighbours, and their conſtantly changing their faſhions is of infinite ſervice to their manufactures. They poſſeſs one capital advantage over the Engliſh which is, that the clothes of both ſexes, and their ornaments, are at leaſt one third cheaper.

When a ſtranger arrives in Paris, he finds it neceſſary to ſend for the taylor, perruquier, hatter, ſhoe-maker, and every other tradeſman concerned in the equipment of the human body. He muſt even change his buckles, and the form of his ruffles; and, though at the riſk of his life, ſuit his cloathes to the mode of the ſeaſon. For example, though the weather ſhould be ever ſo cold, he muſt wear his *habit d'été*, or *demi-ſaiſon*, without preſuming to put on a warm dreſs before the day which faſhion has fixed for that purpoſe; and neither old age nor infirmity will excuſe a man for wearing his hat upon his head, either at home or abroad. Females are, if poſſible, ſtill more ſubject to the caprices of faſhion. All their ſacks and negligees muſt be altered and new trimmed. They muſt have new caps, new laces, new ſhoes, and their hair new cut. They muſt have their taffeties for the ſummer, their flowered ſilks for the ſpring and autumn, their ſatins and damaſks for winter. The men too muſt provide themſelves with a camblet ſuit, trimmed with ſilver for ſpring and autumn, with ſilk cloths for ſummer, and cloth laced with gold or velvet, for winter; and he muſt wear his bag-wig *à la pigeon*. This variety of dreſs is abſolutely indiſpenſable for all thoſe who pretend to any rank above the mere vulgar; all ranks, from the king downwards, uſe powder; and even the rabble, according to their abilities, imitate their ſuperiors in the fopperies of faſhion. The common people of the country, however, ſtill retain, without any material deviation, the old-faſhioned modes of dreſs, the large hat, and moſt enormous jack-boots, with ſuitable ſpurs; and this contraſt is even perceivable a few miles from Paris.

The religion of France is Roman Catholic, with religious liberty to all ſects. The territorial poſſeſſions of the Gallican church have been claimed as national property, and diſpoſed of through the medium of a paper money, called aſſignats, for the creditors of the ſtate; and the clergy made dependent upon penſionary eſtabliſhments paid out of the national treaſury; out of which alſo are paid the expences of worſhip, the religious, and the poor. All monaſtic eſtabliſhments are ſuppreſſed; but the preſent friars and nuns are allowed to obſerve their vows, and nuns optionally to remain in their convents, or retire upon penſions.

The clergy are elective by the people, and take an oath to obſerve the laws of the new conſtitution*. They notify to the biſhop of Rome their union in doctrine, but do not pay him fees, nor acknowledge any ſubordination to his authority. They are ſupplied with lodgings upon their

* Many of the clergy, called refractory prieſts, from a conſcientious refuſal of this oath, have been ejected from their benefices, and many of the popular curates made biſhops.

livings,

livings, whereon they are obliged to reſide and perform the duties of their office. They vote as active citizens, and are eligible to ſome lay-offices in the diſtricts, but to no principal ones.

ARCHBISHOPRICS, BISHOPRICS, &c.] France, divided into nine metropolitan circles, has a METROPOLITAN BISHOP with a ſynod in each, beſides one for Paris. The metropolitan biſhop is confirmed by the eldeſt biſhop in his circle. Appeals are made from the biſhops to their ſynods.

A BISHOP is appointed to each of the eighty-three *departments*, which form ſo many dioceſes. They are appointed by the electoral aſſembly of the department, and confirmed by the metropolitan biſhop, but muſt have held an eccleſiaſtical office fifteen yeas. The ſalaries are from 500l. to 840l. per annum. Each dioceſe has alſo a *ſeminary*, with three vicars, and a vicar general to prepare ſtudents for holy orders, and theſe vicars form a council for the biſhop.

VICARS of biſhops are choſen by the biſhop from among the clergy of his dioceſe, who have done duty ten years. The ſalaries are from 84l. to 250l. per annum.

MINISTERS of pariſhes or curés in the diſtricts, are confirmed by the biſhop, and they muſt have been vicars to miniſters five years. They have ſalaries from 50l. to 160l. per annum, and when infirm, receive penſions.

VICARS of miniſters are choſen by the miniſter from among the prieſts admitted in the dioceſe by the biſhop, and receive ſalaries from 30l. to 100l. ſterling per annum.

France contains more than two millions of non-catholics; and the *Proteſtants*, who are greatly increaſing, are in proportion to the Catholics, as one to twelve. There are already many regular congregations: viz. German Lutherans, French and Swiſs Calviniſts, Bohemian Anabaptiſts, and Walloon or Flemiſh Diſſidents, beſides many chapels for the ambaſſadors. It alſo contains many Jews.

LANGUAGE.] One of the wiſeſt meaſures of Lewis XIV. was his encouragement of every propoſal that tended to the purity and perfection of the French language. He ſucceeded ſo far as to render it the moſt univerſal of all the living tongues; a circumſtance that tended equally to his greatneſs and his glory, for his court and nation thereby became the ſchool of arts, ſciences, and politeneſs. The French language, at preſent, is chiefly compoſed of words radically derived from the Latin, with many German derivatives introduced by the Franks. It is now rather on the decay: its corner ſtones, fixed under Lewis XIV. are as it were looſened; and in the preſent mode of writing and expreſſing themſelves, the modern French abandon that grammatical ſtandard, which alone can render a language claſſical and permanent.

As to the properties of the language, they are undoubtedly greatly inferior to the Engliſh: but they are well adapted to ſubjects void of elevation or paſſion. It is well accommodated to dalliance, compliments, and common converſation.

The Lord's Prayer in French is as follows: *Nôtre père qui es aux cieux, ton nom ſoit ſanctifié. Ton regne vienne. Ta volonté ſoit faite en la terre comme au ciel. Donne nous aujourd'hui notre pain quotidien. Pardonne nous nos offences, comme nous pardonnons à ceux qui nous ont offenſés. Et ne nous indui point en tentation, mais nous delivre du mal: car à toi eſt le regne, la puiſſance, & la gloire aux ſiécles des ſiécles.* Amen.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] The French, like the other nations

tions of Europe, were for many centuries immerſed in barbarity. The firſt learning they began to acquire, was not of that kind which improves the underſtanding, corrects the taſte, or regulates the affections. It conſiſted in a ſubtle and quibbling logic, which was more adapted to pervert than to improve the faculties. But the ſtudy of the Greek and Roman writers, which firſt aroſe in Italy, diffuſed itſelf among the French, and gave a new turn to their literary purſuits. This, together with the encouragement which the polite and learned Francis I. gave to all men of merit, was extremely beneficial to French literature. During this reign, many learned men appeared in France, who greatly diſtinguiſhed themſelves by their writings; among whom were Budæus, Clement Marot, Peter du Chatel, Rabelais, and Peter Ramus. The names of Henry and Robert Stephens are alſo mentioned by every real ſcholar with reſpect. It was not, however, till the ſeventeenth century, that the French began to write with elegance in their own language. The Academie Françoiſe was formed for this purpoſe: and though their labours, conſidered as a body, were not ſo ſucceſsful as might have been expected, ſome particular academicians have done great ſervice to letters. In fact, literary copartnerſhips are ſeldom very ſucceſsful. Of this we have a remarkable example in the preſent caſe. The Academy publiſhed a dictionary for improving the French language: it was univerſally deſpiſed. Furetieres, a ſingle academician, publiſhes another: it meets with univerſal approbation.

Lewis XIV. was the Auguſtus of France. The protection he gave to letters, and the penſions he beſtowed on learned men, both at home and abroad, which, by calculation, did not amount to above 12,000l. per annum, have gained him more glory than all the military enterpriſes, upon which he expended ſo many millions. The learned men who appeared in France during this reign, are too numerous to be mentioned. Their tragic poets, Racine and Corneille, have deſervedly obtained a very high reputation: the firſt was diſtinguiſhed for ſkill in moving the paſſions; the ſecond for majeſty; and both, for the ſtrength and juſtneſs of their painting, the elegance of their taſte, and their ſtrict adherence to the rules of the drama. Moliere would have exhauſted the ſubjects of comedy, were they not every where inexhauſtible, and particularly in France. In works of ſatire and in criticiſm, Boileau, who was a cloſe imitator of the ancients, poſſeſſed uncommon merit. But France has not yet produced an epic poem that can be mentioned with Milton's; nor a genius of the ſame extenſive and univerſal kind with Shakſpeare, equally fitted for the gay and the ſerious, the humorous and the ſublime. In the eloquence of the pulpit and of the bar, the French are greatly our ſuperiors; Boſſuet, Bourdaloue, Flechier, and Maſſillon, have carried pulpit eloquence to a degree of perfection which we may approach to, but can hardly be expected ever to ſurpaſs. The genius, however, of their religion and government is extremely unfavourable to all improvements in the moſt uſeful branches of philoſophy. All the eſtabliſhments of Lewis XIV. for the advancement of ſcience, were not able to counterbalance the influence of the clergy, whoſe intereſt is to keep mankind ignorant in matters of religion and morality; and the influence of the court and miniſtry, who have an equal intereſt in concealing the natural rights of mankind, and every ſound principle of government. The French have not therefore ſo many good writers on moral, religious, or political ſubjects as have appeared in Great Britain. But France has produced ſome great men who do honour to humanity; whoſe career no

obſtacle could ſtop, whoſe freedom no government, however deſpotic, no religion, however ſuperſtitious, could curb or reſtrain. As an hiſtorian, De Thou is entitled to the higheſt praiſe; and who is ignorant of Paſcal, or of the archbiſhop of Cambray? Few men have done more ſervice to religion, either by their writings or their lives. As for Monteſquieu, he is an honour to human nature: he is the legiſlator of nations: his works are read in every country and language, and wherever they go they enlighten and invigorate the human mind. And, indeed, ſeveral writers have lately appeared in France, whoſe writings breathe ſuch ſentiments of liberty, as did but ill accord with an arbitrary government; ſentiments which have made rapid progreſs among men of letters and perſons in the higher ranks of life, and which, there can be no doubt, have been one conſiderable cauſe in producing the late important revolution.

In the Belles Lettres and miſcellaneous way, no nation ever produced more agreeable writers: among whom we may place Montaigne, D'Argens, and Voltaire, as the moſt conſiderable.

Before the immortal Newton appeared in England, Deſcartes was the greateſt philoſopher in modern times. He was the firſt who applied algebra to the ſolution of geometrical problems, which naturally paved the way to the analytical diſcoveries of Newton. Many eminent mathematicians have flouriſhed in the preſent age, particularly Clairaut, Bezout, and D'Alembert; the latter of whom, to the preciſion of a geometer, has united the talents of a fine writer.

Since the beginning of the preſent century, the French have almoſt vied with the Engliſh in natural philoſophy. Buffon would deſerve to be reckoned among men of ſcience, were he not ſtill more remarkable for his eloquence than for his philoſophy. He is to be regarded as a philoſophical painter of nature; and, under this view, his Natural Hiſtory is the firſt work of its kind.

Their painters, Pouſſin, Le Brun, and above all Le Sueur, did honour to the age of Lewis XIV. They have none at preſent to compare with them in the more noble kind of painting: but Mr. Greuſe, for portraits and converſation pieces, never perhaps was excelled.

Sculpture is in general better underſtood in France than in moſt other countries of Europe. Their engravings on copper-plates have been univerſally and juſtly celebrated; but ſuch a liberal patronage has been afforded to Engliſh artiſts, that they are now thought to excel their ingenious neighbours, and have rivalled them alſo in the manufacture of paper, proper for ſuch impreſſions. Their treatiſes on ſhip-building and engineering ſtand unrivalled; but in the practice of both they are outdone by the Engliſh. No genius has hitherto equalled Vauban in the theory or practice of fortification. The French were long our ſuperiors in architecture; though we now bid fair for ſurpaſſing them in this art.

The French Encyclopædia, firſt publiſhed in the latter years of Lewis XV. and now republiſhing in a new form, is the beſt dictionary of arts and ſciences ever compiled in any country.

UNIVERSITIES AND PUBLIC COLLEGES.] Theſe literary inſtitutions loſt much by the expulſion of the Jeſuits, who made the languages, arts, and ſciences, their particular ſtudy, and taught them all over France. It is not within my plan to deſcribe the different governments and conſtitutions of every univerſity or public college in France; but they are in number twenty-eight, as follow: Aix, Angers, Arles, Avignon, Beſançon, Bourdeaux, Bourges, Caen, Cahors, Dol, Douay, La Fleche, Montauban,

auban, Montpelier, Nantes, Orange, Orleans, Paris, Perpignan, Poitiers, Pont-a-Mouſſon, Richelieu, Rheims, Soiſſons, Straſbourg, Toulouſe, Tournon, and Valence. Among theſe, the Sorbonne at Paris is the moſt celebrated.

ACADEMIES.] The following literary eſtabliſhments are ſupported out of the national treaſury: the French Academy, Academy of Belles Lettres, Academy of Sciences, Royal Society of Medicine, King's Library, Obſervatory, and the Free School of Deſign.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] Few countries, if we except Italy, can boaſt of more valuable remains of antiquity than France. Some of the French antiquities belong to the time of the Celts, and conſequently, compared to them, thoſe of Rome are modern. Father Mabillon has given us a moſt curious account of the ſepulchres of their kings, which have been diſcovered ſo far back as Pharamond; and ſome of them, when broke open, were found to contain ornaments and jewels of value. At Rheims, and other parts of France, are to be ſeen triumphal arches; but the moſt entire is at Orange, erected on account of the victory obtained over the Cimbri and Teutones, by Caius Marius and Luctatius Catulus. After Gaul was reduced to a Roman province, the Romans took vaſt delight in adorning it with magnificent edifices, both civil and ſacred; ſome of which are more entire than any to be met with in Italy itſelf. The ruins of an amphitheatre are to be found in Chalons, and likewiſe at Vienne. Niſmes, however, exhibits the moſt valuable remains of ancient architecture of any place in France. The famous Pont du Garde was raiſed in the Auguſtan age by the Roman colony of Niſmes, to convey a ſtream of water between two mountains for the uſe of that city, and it is as freſh to this day as Weſtminſter-bridge: it conſiſts of three bridges, or tiers of arches one above another; the height is 174 feet, and the length extends to 723. Many other ruins of antiquity are found at Niſmes; but the chief are the temple of Diana, whoſe veſtiges are ſtill remaining; the amphitheatre, which is thought to be the fineſt and moſt entire of the kind of any of Europe; but above all, the houſe erected by the emperor Adrian, called the Maiſon Carrée. The architecture and ſculpture of this building are ſo exquiſitely beautiful, that it enchants even the moſt ignorant: and it is ſtill entire, being very little affected either by the ravages of time, or the havoc of war. At Paris, in la Rue de la Harpe, may be ſeen the remains of the Thermæ, ſuppoſed to have been built by the emperor Julian, ſurnamed the Apoſtate, about the year 356, after the ſame model as the baths of Dioclefian. The remains of this ancient edifice are many arches, and within them a large ſaloon. It is fabricated of a kind of maſtic, the compoſition of which is not now known, intermixed with ſmall ſquare pieces of free-ſtone and bricks. But the moſt extraordinary of all artificial curioſities, is the ſubterraneous cavern at Paris: for the firſt building of that city, it was neceſſary to get the ſtone in the environs; as Paris was enlarged, the ſtreets and ſuburbs extended to and were built on the ancient quarries from which the ſtone had been taken, and hence proceed the caverns or frightful cavities which are found under the houſes in ſeveral quarters of the city. Eight perſons lately periſhed in one of them, a gulf of 150 feet deep, which excited the police and government to cauſe the buildings of ſeveral quarters to be privately propped up. All the ſuburbs of St. James's, Harp-ſtreet, and even the ſtreet of Tournon, ſtand upon the ancient quarries, and pillars have been erected to

ſupport the weight of the houſes; but as the lofty buildings, towers, and ſteeples, now tell the eye what is ſeen in the air, is wanting under the feet, ſo it would not require a very violent ſhock to throw back the ſtones to the places from whence they were raiſed.

At Arles in Provence is to be ſeen an obeliſk of oriental granite, which is 52 feet high, and ſeven feet diameter at the baſe, and all but one ſtone. Roman temples are frequent in France. The moſt particular are in Burgundy and Guienne; and other places, beſides the neighbourhood of Niſmes, contain magnificent ruins of aqueducts. The paſſage cut through the middle of a rock near Briançon in Dauphiny, is thought to be a Roman work, if not of greater antiquity. The round buckler of maſſy ſilver, taken out of the Rhone in 1665, being twenty inches in diameter, and weighing twenty-one pounds, containing the ſtory of Scipio's continence, is thought to be coeval with that great general.

Some of the modern works of art, particularly the canals, have been alſo before noticed. There are ſome ſubterraneous paſſages and holes, eſpecially at St. Aubin in Brittany, and Niont in Dauphiny, really ſtupendous.

CITIES AND TOWNS.] Theſe are numerous in France; of which we ſhall mention only Paris, Liſle, and their principal ſea-ports, Breſt, and Toulon.

Liſle, in French Flanders, is thought to be the moſt regular and ſtrongeſt fortification in Europe, and was the maſter-piece of the famous Vauban. It is generally garriſoned with above ten thouſand regulars; and, for its magnificence and elegance, it is called little Paris. Its manufactures of ſilk, cambric, and camblets, are very conſiderable; and its inhabitants amount to about one hundred thouſand. Every reader is acquainted with the hiſtory of Dunkirk, which the French were obliged by the treaty of Utrecht to demoliſh, but is ſtill a thorn in the ſide of the Engliſh, by being a harbour for their ſmugglers. The reſt of French Flanders, and its Netherlands, abound with fortified towns, which carry on very gainful manufactures.

Moving ſouthward, we come to the Iſle of France; the capital of which, and of the whole kingdom, is Paris. This city has been ſo often deſcribed, it may appear ſuperfluous to mention it more particularly, were it not that the vanity of the French has given it a preference, which it by no means deſerves, to all the capitals in the world, in every reſpect, not excepting even population. Many of the Engliſh have been impoſed upon in this point; particularly by the computing from the births and burials within the bills of mortality, which exclude the moſt populous pariſhes about London. Another miſtake lies in computing from births and marriages. The number of diſſenters of all kinds in and about London, who do not regiſter the births of their children, is amazing; the regiſters of others are not known by the public; and many of the poorer ſort will not afford the ſmall expence of ſuch a regiſtering. Another peculiarity exiſting in London is, that many of the Londoners, who can afford the expence, when they find themſelves conſumptive, or otherwiſe indiſpoſed, retire into the country, where they are buried, and thereby excluded from the bills of mortality. The population of Paris therefore, where the regiſters are more exact and acceſſible to the poor, and where the religion and the police are more uniform and ſtrict, is far more eaſily aſcertained than that of London; and by the beſt accounts it does not exceed ſeven or eight hundred thouſand, which is far ſhort of the inhabitants of London and the contiguous pariſhes.

Paris

Paris is divided into three parts; the city, the univerſity, and that which was formerly called the Town. The city is old Paris; the univerſity and the town are the new. Paris contains more works of public magnificence than utility. Its palaces are ſhowy, and ſome of its ſtreets, ſquares, hotels, hoſpitals, and churches, ſuperbly decorated with a profuſion of paintings, tapeſtry, images, and ſtatues; but Paris, notwithſtanding its boaſted police, is greatly inferior to London in many of the conveniencies of life, and the ſolid enjoyments of ſociety. Without entering into more minute diſquiſitions, Paris, it muſt be owned, is the paradiſe of ſplendor and diſſipation. The tapeſtry of the Gobelins * is unequalled for beauty and richneſs. The Louvre is a building that does honour to architecture itſelf; and the inſtitution of the French academy far exceeds any thing of the kind in England, or elſewhere. The Tuilleries, the palace of Luxembourg, where a valuable collection of paintings are ſhown, the royal palace, the king's library, the guild-hall, and the hoſpital for the invalids, are ſuperb to the higheſt degree. The city of Paris is ſaid to be fifteen miles in circumference. The hotels of the French nobleſſe at Paris take up a great deal of room with their court-yards and gardens; and ſo do their convents and churches. The ſtreets are very narrow, and the houſes very high, many of them ſeven ſtories. The houſes are built of ſtone, and often contain a different family on every floor. The river Seine, which runs through the centre of the city, is not half ſo large as the Thames at London; it is too far diſtant from the ſea for the purpoſes of navigation, and is not furniſhed, as the Thames, with veſſels or boats of any ſort; over it are many ſtone and wooden bridges, which have nothing to recommend them. The ſtreets of Paris are generally crowded, particularly with coaches, which gives that capital the appearance of wealth and grandeur; though, in reality, there is more ſhow than ſubſtance. The glittering carriages that dazzle the eyes of ſtrangers are moſtly common hacks, hired by the day or week to the numerous foreigners who viſit that city; and in truth the greateſt part of the trade of Paris ariſes from the conſtant ſucceſſion of ſtrangers that arrive daily from every nation and quarter of the globe. This aſcendency is undoubtedly owing to the reputation of their language, their public buildings, their libraries, and collections of paintings, that are open to the public; the cheapneſs of proviſions, excellency of the French wines, and above all, the purity of the air and climate in France. With all theſe advantages, Paris, in general, will not bear a compariſon with London, in the more eſſential circumſtances of a thriving foreign and domeſtic trade, the cleanneſs of their ſtreets, neatneſs of their houſes, eſpecially within; the plenty of water, and that of a better quality than the Seine, which it is ſaid diſagrees with ſtrangers, as do likewiſe their ſmall wines. In the houſes of Paris moſt of the floors are of brick, and have no other kind of cleaning than that of being ſprinkled with water, and ſwept once a day. Theſe brick floors, the ſtone ſtairs, the want of wainſcoting in the rooms, and the thick party walls of ſtone, are, however, good preſervatives againſt fire, which ſeldom does any damage in this city. Inſtead of wainſcoting, the walls are covered with tapeſtry or damaſk. The beds in general are very good, and well ornamented with teſter and curtains.

* One *Goblei*, a noted dyer at Rheims, was the firſt who ſettled in this place, in the reign of Francis I. and the houſe has retained his name ever ſince: and here the great Colbert, about the year 1667, eſtabliſhed that valuable manufactory.

Their ſhops are but poorly ſtored with goods; and the ſhop-keepers and tradeſmen, an indolent, loitering people, ſeldom make their appearance before dinner in any other than a morning dreſs, or velvet cap, ſilk night-gown, and Morocco ſlippers; but when they intend a viſit, or going abroad, all the punctilios of a courtier are attended to, and hardly the reſemblance of a man remains. There is a remarkable contraſt between this claſs of people and thoſe of the ſame rank in London. In Paris, the women pack up parcels, enter the orders, and do moſt of the drudgery buſineſs of the ſhop, while the huſband loiters about, talks of the great, of faſhions and diverſions, and the invincible force of their armies. The ſplendour of the grand monarque uſed to be alſo with them a favourite topic of converſation, previous to the change in their political ſyſtem. The Pariſians, however, as well as the natives of France in general, are remarkably temperate in their living; and to be intoxicated with liquor is conſidered as infamous. Bread, and all manner of butchers' meat and poultry, are extremely good in Paris; the beef is excellent; the wine they generally drink is a very thin kind of burgundy. The common people, in the ſummer ſeaſon, live chiefly on bread, butter, grapes, and ſmall wine. The Pariſians, till lately, ſcarcely knew the uſe of tea, but they have coffee in plenty. The police of Paris uſed to be ſo well attended to, that quarrels, accidents, or felonies, ſeldom happened; and ſtrangers from all quarters of the globe, let their appearance be ever ſo uncommon, met with the moſt polite treatment. The ſtreets are patrolled at night by horſe and foot; ſo judiciouſly ſtationed, that no offender can eſcape their vigilance. They likewiſe viſit the publicans preciſely at the hour of twelve at night, to ſee that the company are gone; for in Paris no liquor can be had after that time. The public roads in France were under the ſame excellent regulation, which, with the torture of the rack, prevents robberies in that kingdom; but, for the ſame reaſon, when robberies do happen, they are always attended with the death of the unfortunate traveller; and indeed this is the general practice in every country of Europe, Great Britain excepted.

The environs of Paris are very pleaſant, and contain a number of fine ſeats, ſmall towns, and villages; ſome of them, being ſcattered on the edges of hills riſing from the Seine, are remarkably delightful.

The palace of Verſailles, which ſtands twelve miles from Paris, though magnificent and expenſive beyond conception, and adorned with all that art can furniſh, is a collection of buildings, each of exquiſite architecture, but not forming a whole, agreeable to the grand and ſublime of that art. The gardens, and water-works, (which are ſupplied by means of prodigious engines, acroſs the Seine at Marli, about three miles diſtance), are aſtoniſhing proofs of the fertile genius of man, and highly worthy of a ſtranger's attention. Trianon, Marli, St. Germain en Laye, Meudon, and other royal palaces, are laid out with taſte and judgment; each has its peculiar beauties for the entertainment and amuſement of that luxurious court which lately occupied them; but ſome of them are in a ſhameful condition, both as to repairs and cleanlineſs.

Breſt is a ſmall, but very ſtrong town, upon the Engliſh Channel, with a moſt ſpacious and finely fortified road and harbour, the beſt and ſafeſt in all the kingdom; yet its entrance is difficult, by reaſon of many rocks lying under water. At Breſt is a court of admiralty, and academy for ſea affairs, docks and magazines for all kinds of naval ſtores, rope yards, ſtore-houſes, &c. inſomuch that it may now be termed the capital receptacle for the navy of France, and is admirably well adapted for that end.

Lewis

Lewis XIV. rendered Toulon, from a pitiful village, a ſea-port of great importance. He fortified both the town and harbour for the reception and protection of the navy. Its old and its new harbour lie contiguous; and by means of a canal, ſhips paſs from the one to the other, both of them having an outlet into the ſpacious outer harbour. Its arſenal, eſtabliſhed alſo by that king, has a particular ſtore-houſe for each ſhip of war, its guns, cordage, &c. being ſeparately laid up. Here are ſpacious workſhops, for blackſmiths, joiners, carpenters, lockſmiths, carvers, &c. Its rope-walk, of ſtone, is 320 toiſes or fathoms in length, with three arched walks. Its general magazine ſupplies whatever may be wanting in the particular ſtore-houſes, and contains an immenſe quantity of all kinds of ſtores, diſpoſed in the greateſt order.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] Next to Henry IV. juſtly ſtyled the Great, the famous Colbert, miniſter to Lewis XIV. may be called the father of the French commerce and manufactures. Under him there was a great appearance that France would make as illuſtrious a figure as a trading as ſhe did then as a warlike people; but the truth is, the French do not naturally poſſeſs that undaunted perſeverance which is neceſſary for commerce and coloniſation, though no people, in theory, underſtand them better. It is to be conſidered at the ſame time, that France, by her ſituation, by the turn of her inhabitants for certain manufactures, and the happineſs of her ſoil, muſt be always poſſeſſed of great inland and neighbouring trade.

The ſilk manufacture was introduced into France ſo late as the reign of Henry IV. and in the age of his grandſon Lewis XIV. the city of Tours alone employed 8000 looms, and 800 mills. The city of Lyons then employed 18,000 looms; but after the impolitic and unjuſt revocation of the edict of Nantes, the expulſion of the Proteſtants, and the ruinous wars maintained by France, they decreaſed to 4000; and their ſilk manufacture is now rivalled by that of England, where the French Proteſtants took refuge, and were happily encouraged. Next to Tours and Lyons, Paris, Chatillon, and Niſmes, are moſt celebrated for ſilk manufactures. France contains 1,500 ſilk mills, 21,000 looms for ſtuffs, 12,000 for ribbons and lace, 20,000 for ſilk ſtockings, all of which employ two millions of people. They alſo manufacture gloves and ſtockings from ſpider-ſilk. On the other hand, the French woollen cloths and ſtuffs, more eſpecially at Abbeville, Amiens, and Paris, are ſaid to be now little inferior to thoſe of England, and have greatly injured them, particularly in the Turkiſh market, aſſiſted by the clandeſtine importation of Engliſh and Iriſh wool, and workmen from this country.

In manufactures the French have always been diſtinguiſhed for their invention, and the Engliſh for their ſuperior improvement. Abbeville is famous for cloth, linen, ſail-cloth, and ſoap; Auvergne for fine thread, lace, ſtuffs, and paper; Niſmes for fine ſerges; Cambray for cambrics; St. Quintin for lawns; and Picardy for plate glaſs.

The diſtricts adjoining the Britiſh channel contain many ſheep of the Engliſh breed, which are ſaid to degenerate by removal from their native ſoil.

Beſides the infinite advantage ariſing to her inland commerce, from her rivers, navigable canals, and a connexion with two ſeas, her foreign trade may be ſaid to extend itſelf all over the globe. It is a doubtful point whether France was a loſer by its ceſſion of Canada and part of Louiſiana at the late peace. But the moſt valuable part of Hiſpaniola in the Weſt Indies, which ſhe poſſeſſed by the partiality and indolence of Spain, is a moſt

improvable acquiſition, and the moſt valuable of all her foreign colonies. In the Weſt Indies, ſhe likewiſe holds the important ſugar iſlands of Martinico, Guadaloupe, St. Lucia, St. Bartholomew, Deſeada, and Marigalante. Her poſſeſſions in North America are only a ſmall tract upon the Miſſiſſippi.

The French poſſeſſions in the Eaſt Indies are not very conſiderable; though, had their genius been more turned for commerce than war, they might have engroſſed more territory and revenues than are now in poſſeſſion of the Engliſh; but they over-rated both their own power and their courage, and their Eaſt India company never did much. At preſent (ſays Mr. Anderſon), 'her land trade to Switzerland and Italy is by way of Lyons—To Germany, through Metz and Straſburgh—To the Netherlands, through Liſle—To Spain (a moſt profitable one), through Bayonne and Perpignan. As for her naval commerce, her ports in the channel, and on the weſtern ocean, are frequented by all the trading nations in Europe, to the great advantage of France, more eſpecially reſpecting what is carried on with England, Holland, and Italy. The trade from her Mediterranean ports (more particularly from Marſeilles) with Turkey and Africa, has long been very conſiderable. The negro trade from Guinea ſupplies her ſugar colonies, beſides the gold, ivory, and drugs got from thence.'

The commercial treaty between France and England appears to have ſerved both countries, by opening an extenſive market for Engliſh woollens, cottons, pottery, and hardware, and for French wines. linens, and cambrics, beſides having nearly deſtroyed the great ſmuggling trade on their coaſts, and promoted a friendly intercourſe between the two nations; but it has alſo been the means of glutting the French markets with Engliſh goods, and affording the French an opportunity to rival the Engliſh in their manufactures, as appears from new ones, particularly one in imitation of Wedgewood's ware, already eſtabliſhed at Paris.

The exports are wine, vinegar, brandy, oil, ſilks, ſatins, linens, woollen cloth, tapeſtries, laces, gold and ſilver embroideries, toys, trinkets, perfumery, paper, prints, books, drugs, dies, &c. The imports are hardware, earthen ware, cottons, metals, hemp, flax, ſilk, wool, horſes, Eaſt and Weſt India goods, &c. It employs one million tons of ſhipping, with near 50,000 ſeamen; and before the revolution, the imports were valued at 9,583,333l. the exports at 12,500,000l. and it had a *balance* of trade of more than two millions in its favour; but its trade and manufactures have ſince declined.

One great diſadvantage to the commerce of France is, that the profeſſion of a merchant is not ſo honourable as in England and ſome other countries. A great number of the cities of France have the privilege of coinage, and each of them a particular mark to diſtinguiſh their reſpective pieces; which muſt be very embarraſſing, eſpecially to ſtrangers.

PUBLIC TRADING COMPANIES.] It has no trading companies (having aboliſhed all monopolies) but a bank or *caiſſe d'eſcompte*, and a bank of extraordinaries.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] France, by the revolution in 1789, founded a *new conſtitution*, upon the principles that all men are free and equal in their rights, and that ſovereignty reſides in the nation. It would be trifling with our readers to give them any detail of this conſtitution, as it has been virtually overthrown, by the abolition of the monarchical part of it, and by the ſubſequent condemnation and execution of the king; a deed of moſt ſingular atrocity, by which the national convention have ſtamped eternal infamy upon their characters.—A committee

has

has been appointed by the convention to draw up a new conſtitution, which has juſt made its appearance, and been approved by the repreſentatives of the people, but the uncertainty of its continuance diſpenſes us from giving it a place in this work

After the reader has been told of the excellency of the climate, and fertility of the ſoil in France; her numerous manufactures and extenſive commerce; her great cities, her numerous towns, ſea ports, rivers, and canals; the cheapneſs of proviſions, wines and liquors; the formidable armies and fleets ſhe has ſent forth, to the terror of Europe; and the natural character of her inhabitants, their ſprightlineſs and gaiety; he will undoubtedly conclude, that her people are the moſt opulent and happy in Europe. The reverſe, however, appears to be the ſtate of that nation at preſent; and we do not find that in any former period they were more rich or more happy.

The moſt obvious cauſes of this national poverty took their riſe from the ambition and vanity of their kings and courtiers, which led them into ſchemes of univerſal dominion, the aggrandiſement of their name, and the enſlaving of Chriſtendom. Their wars, which they ſometimes carried on againſt one half of Europe, and in which they were generally unfortunate, led them into difficulties to which the ordinary revenues were inadequate; and hence proceeded the arbitrary demands upon the ſubject, under various pretences, in the name of loans, free gifts, &c. When theſe failed, other methods, more deſpotic and unwarrantable, ſuch as raiſing and reducing the value of money as it ſuited their own purpoſes, national bankruptcies, and other grievous oppreſſions, were adopted, which gave the finiſhing blow to public credit, and ſhook the foundations of trade, commerce, and induſtry, the fruits of which no man could call his own.

When we conſider the motives of theſe wars, a deſire to enſlave and render miſerable the nations around them, that man muſt be devoid of humanity whoſe breaſt is not raiſed with indignation upon the bare mention of the blood that has been ſpilt, the miſeries and deſolations that have happened, and the numerous places that have fallen a ſacrifice to their ambition. It apppears too plain, that while they thus graſp after foreign conqueſt, their country exhibits a picture of miſery and beggary. Their towns, very few excepted, make a moſt diſmal and ſolitary appearance. The ſhops are mean beyond deſcription. That this is the appearance of their towns, and many of their cities, we may appeal to the obſervation of any one who has been in that kingdom. We have in another place mentioned the natural advantages of France, where the hills are covered with grapes, and moſt extenſive plains produce excellent crops of corn, rye, and barley. Amidſt this profuſion of plenty, the peaſant and his family barely exiſted upon the gleanings, exhibiting a ſpectacle of indigence hardly credible; and to ſee him ploughing the ground with a lean cow, aſs, and a goat yoked together, excited in an Engliſh traveller that pity to which human nature is entitled. The French peaſant is now become a citizen; but time muſt decide whether his ſituation be eſſentially and permanently mended.

REVENUES.] Some authors make the amount of the aſſeſſed taxes for the year 1792, only 300,000,000 livres, equal to 12,500,000l. ſterling, and with the incidental taxes, in all 15,500,000l. ſterling; near nine millions leſs than before the revolution, when the nobleſſe and clergy were exempted.

All exciſes and exciſemen, tythes, and game laws, are now aboliſhed, and the roads maintained at public expence.

The REVENUE in the year 1788, before the revolution, was 20 millions

lions and a half ſterling; and its ordinary expenditure exceeded the revenue five millions and a half.

The public DEBT, 1784, was £. 141,666,000.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] There is no nation in Europe where the art of war, particularly that part of it relating to gunnery and fortification, is better underſtood than in France. Beſides other methods for cultivating it, there was a royal military academy eſtabliſhed purpoſely for training up 500 young gentlemen at a time, in the ſeveral branches of this great art.

ARMY.] The peace eſtabliſhment of the *army*, for the year 1792, was,

Infantry	111,000
Cavalry	30,000
Artillery	11,000
Total	152,000

Theſe are called *troops of the line*, and along with the volunteer national guards, form an army, at preſent on the frontiers, of 224,000 men.

The *municipal army*, or national guards, are a kind of embodied militia for the interior defence of the kingdom, and amount to between 3 and 4 millions.

The *gendarmerie* are an auxiliary body of troops, for the protection of laws and police.

NAVY.] The report of the miniſter towards the cloſe of the year 1791, ſtates the ſhips in good condition, to be 86 of the line, and, including thoſe building, as follows:

Large firſt rates	8
100 guns	5
80 guns	10
74 guns	67
64 guns	1
Total	91
Frigates	78

beſides fireſhips, corvettes, gallies, and cutters.

There are 28 of the line and 5 frigates in commiſſion, and 80,000 ſeamen, with officers regiſtered to man the fleet; but the French navy is at preſent without proper ſubordination.

ROYAL TITLES, ARMS, NOBILITY, AND ORDERS. } The NATIONAL ASSEMBLY, deſirous of eſtabliſhing the French conſtitution on the principles it has declared, aboliſhed, irrevocably, thoſe inſtitutions which are injurious to liberty and equality of rights.

There is no longer any *nobility*, nor *peerage*, nor *hereditary diſtinctions*, nor *difference of orders*, nor *feudal government*, nor *patrimonial juriſdiction*, nor any of the *titles*, *denominations*, *and prerogatives*, which are derived from them; nor any of the orders of *chivalry*, *corporations*, or *decorations*, for which proofs of nobility were required: nor any kind of ſuperiority but that of public functioners in the exerciſe of their functions.

Royalty, which was one branch of the firſt conſtitution, is now aboliſhed, and the unfortunate monarch decapitated.

HISTORY.] The hiſtory of no country is better authenticated than

that

that of France, and it is particularly intereſting to an Engliſh reader. This kingdom, which was by the Romans called Tranſalpine Gaul, or Gaul beyond the Alps, to diſtinguiſh it from Ciſalpine Gaul, on the Italian ſide of the Alps, was probably peopled from Italy, to which it lies contiguous. Like other European nations, it ſoon became a deſirable object to the ambitious Romans; and after a brave reſiſtance, was annexed to their empire by the invincible arms of Julius Cæſar, about forty-eight years before Chriſt. Gaul continued in the poſſeſſion of the Romans till the downfall of that empire in the fifth century, when it became a prey to the Goths, the Burgundians, and the Franks, who ſubdued but did not extirpate the ancient natives. The Franks themſelves, who gave it the name of France, or Frankenland, were a collection of ſeveral people inhabiting Germany, and particularly the Salii, who lived on the banks of the river Sale, and who cultivated the principles of juriſprudence better than their neighbours. Theſe Salii had a rule, which the reſt of the Franks are ſaid to have adopted, and has been by the modern Franks applied to the ſucceſſion of the throne, excluding all females from the inheritance of ſovereignty, and is well known by the name of the *Salic law*.

The Franks and Burgundians, after eſtabliſhing their power, and reducing the original natives to a ſtate of ſlavery, parcelled out the lands among their principal leaders; and ſucceeding kings found it neceſſary to confirm their privileges, allowing them to exerciſe ſovereign authority in their reſpective governments, until they at length aſſumed an independency, only acknowledging the king as their head. This gave riſe to thoſe numerous principalities that were formerly in France, and to the ſeveral parliaments; for every province became, in its policy and government, an epitome of the whole kingdom; and no laws were made, or taxes raiſed, without the concurrence of the grand council, conſiſting of the clergy and of the nobility.

Thus, as in other European nations, immediately after the diſſolution of the Roman empire, the firſt government in France ſeems to have been a kind of mixed monarchy, and the power of their kings extremely circumſcribed and limited by the feudal barons.

The firſt Chriſtian monarch of the Franks (according to Daniel, one of the beſt French hiſtorians) was Clovis, who began his reign anno 481, and was baptiſed, and introduced Chriſtianity in the year 496: the mind of Clovis had been affected by the pathetic tale of the paſſion and the death of Chriſt; and inſenſible of the beneficial conſequences of the myſterious ſacrifice, he exclaimed with religious fervour, "Had I been preſent with my valiant Franks, I would have revenged his injuries." But though he publicly profeſſed to acknowledge the truth of the goſpel, its divine precepts were but little reſpected. From this period the French hiſtory exhibits a ſeries of great events; and we find them generally engaged in domeſtic broils or in foreign wars. The firſt race of their kings prior to Charlemagne, found a cruel enemy in the Saracens, who then over-ran Europe, and retaliated the barbarities of the Goths and Vandals upon their poſterity. In the year 800, Charlemagne, king of France, whom we have often mentioned as the glory of thoſe dark ages, became maſter of Germany, Spain, and part of Italy, and was crowned king of the Romans by the pope: he divided his empire by will, among his ſons, which proved fatal to his family and poſterity. Soon after this, the Normans, a fierce warlike people from Norway, Denmark, and other parts of Scandinavia, ravaged the kingdom of France, and about the year 900 obliged the French to yield Bretagne to Rollo their leader, who married the king's daughter, and was

perſuaded

perſuaded to profeſs himſelf a Chriſtian. This laid the foundation of the Norman power in France, which afterwards gave a king to England, in the perſon of William duke of Normandy, who ſubdued Harold, the laſt Saxon king, in the year 1066. This event proved unfortunate and ruinous to France, as it engaged that nation in almoſt perpetual wars with England, for whom they were not an equal match, notwithſtanding their numbers, and the aſſiſtance they received from Scotland.

The rage of cruſading, which broke out at this time, was of infinite ſervice to the French crown in two reſpects: in the firſt place it carried off hundreds of thouſands of its turbulent ſubjects, and their leaders, who were almoſt independent of the king: in the next, the king ſucceeded to the eſtates of numbers of the nobility, who died abroad without heirs.

But paſſing over the dark ages of the cruſades, their expedition to the Holy Land, and wars with England, which have already been mentioned, we ſhall proceed to that period when the French began to extend their influence over Europe; and this brings us to the reign of Francis I. contemporary with Henry VIII. of England. This prince, though he was brave to exceſs in his own perſon, and had defeated the Swiſs, who till then were deemed invincible, was an unfortunate warrior. He had great abilities and great defects. He was a candidate for the empire of Germany, but loſt the imperial crown, Charles V. of the houſe of Auſtria, and king of Spain, being choſen. In the year 1520, Francis having invited Henry VIII. of England to an interview, the two kings met in an open plain near Calais, where they and their attendants diſplayed their magnificence with ſuch emulation and profuſe expence as gave it the name of the *Field of the Cloth of Gold*. Feats of chivalry, parties of gallantry, together with ſuch exerciſes and paſtimes as were in that age reckoned manly or elegant, rather than ſerious buſineſs, occupied both courts during eighteen days that they continued together *. Francis made ſome dazzling expeditions againſt Spain, but ſuffered his mother, of whom he was very fond, to abuſe his power: by which he diſobliged the conſtable of Bourbon, the greateſt of his ſubjects, who joined in a confederacy againſt him with the emperor and Henry VIII. of England. In a capital expedition he undertook into Italy, he was taken priſoner at the battle of Pavia, in the year 1524, and obliged to agree to diſhonourable terms, which he never meant to perform, to regain his liberty. His non-performance of thoſe conditions was afterwards the ſource of many wars between him and the emperor; and he died in 1547.

France, at the time of his death, notwithſtanding the variety of diſagreeable events during the late reign, was in a flouriſhing condition. Francis I. was ſucceeded by his ſon Henry II. who, upon the whole, was an excellent and fortunate prince. He continued the war with the em-

* The French and Engliſh hiſtorians deſcribe the pomp of this interview, and the various ſpectacles, with great minuteneſs. One circumſtance mentioned by the mareſchal de Fleuranges, who was preſent, and which appears ſingular in the preſent age, is commonly omitted. "After the tournament," ſays he, "the French and Engliſh wreſtlers made their appearance, and wreſtled in preſence of the kings and the ladies; and as there were many ſtout wreſtlers there, it afforded excellent paſtime; but as the king of France had neglected to bring any wreſtlers out of Bretagne, the Engliſh gained the prize.—After this the kings of France and England retired to a tent, where they drank together, and the king of England ſeizing the king of France by the collar, ſaid, "*My brother, I muſt wreſtle with you*," and endeavoured once or twice to trip up his heels; but the king of France, who is a dexterous wreſtler, twiſted him round, and threw him on the earth with prodigious violence. The king of England wanted to renew the combat, but was prevented."

Memoires de Fleuranges, 12mo. Paris, 1753, p. 329.

peror

peror of Germany to great advantage for his own dominions; and was ſo well ſerved by the duke of Guiſe, that though he loſt the battle of St. Quintin, againſt the Spaniards and the Engliſh, he retook Calais from the latter, who never ſince had any footing in France. He married his ſon the dauphin to Mary queen of Scots, in hopes of uniting that kingdom to his crown; but in this ſcheme, he, or rather his country, was unfortunate, as may be ſeen in the hiſtory of Scotland. He was killed in the year 1559, at an unhappy tilting-match, by the count of Montgomeri.

He was ſucceeded by his ſon Francis II. a weak, ſickly, inactive prince, and only thirteen years of age, whoſe power was entirely engroſſed by a prince of the houſe of Guiſe, uncle to his wife, the beautiful queen of Scotland. This engroſſment of power encouraged the Bourbon, the Montmorenci, and other great families, to form a ſtrong oppoſition againſt the government. Anthony, king of Navarre, was at the head of the Bourbon family; but the queen-mother, the famous Catherine of Medicis, being obliged to take part with the Guiſes, the confederacy, who had adopted the cauſe of Hugonotiſm, was broken in pieces, when the ſudden death of Francis happened, in the year 1560.

This event took place while the prince of Condé, brother to the king of Navarre, was under ſentence of death for a conſpiracy againſt the court; but the queen-mother ſaved him, to balance the intereſt of the Guiſes; ſo that the ſole direction of affairs fell into her hands, during the minority of her ſecond ſon, Charles IX. Her regency was a continued ſeries of diſſimulation, treachery, and murder. The duke of Guiſe, who was the ſcourge of the Proteſtants, was aſſaſſinated by one Poltrot, at the ſiege of Orleans; and the murderer was unjuſtly thought to have been inſtigated by the famous Coligni, admiral of France, who was then at the head of the Proteſtant party. Three civil wars ſucceeded each other. At laſt the court pretended to grant the Hugonots a very advantageous peace, and a match was concluded between Henry, the young king of Navarre, a Proteſtant, and the French king's ſiſter. The heads of the Proteſtants were invited to celebrate the nuptials at Paris, with the infernal view of butchering them all, if poſſible, in one night. The project proved but too ſucceſsful, though it was not completely executed, on St. Bartholomew's day, 1572. The king himſelf aſſiſted in the maſſacre, in which the admiral Coligni fell. The ſignal for the inhuman ſlaughter of ſo many thouſands, was to be made by ſtriking the great bell of the palace. At that dreadful knell, the work of death was begun, and humanity recoils from the horrors of the fatal night of St. Bartholomew; yet the reader may expect, amidſt the general carnage, that ſome few moments ſhould be devoted to the fate of Coligni. He had long retired to reſt, when he was arouſed by the noiſe of the aſſaſſins, who had ſurrounded his houſe. A German, named Beſme, entered his chamber, and the admiral, apprehending his intentions, prepared to meet death with that fortitude which had ever diſtinguiſhed him. Incapable of reſiſtance from the wounds he had received by two balls in a late attempt to aſſaſſinate him, with an undiſmayed countenance, he had ſcarce uttered the words, "young man, reſpect theſe grey hairs, nor ſtain them with blood," when Beſme plunged his ſword into his boſom, and with his barbarous aſſociates threw the body into the court. The young duke of Guiſe contemplated it in ſilence; but Henry, count d'Angouléſme, natural brother to Charles, ſpurned it with his foot, exclaiming, "Courage, my friends, we have begun well, let us finiſh in the ſame manner." It is ſaid that about

30,000

30,000 Proteſtants were murdered at Paris, and in other parts of France; and this brought on a fourth civil war. Though a freſh peace was concluded in 1573 with the Proteſtants, yet a fifth civil war broke out the next year, when the bloody Charles IX. died without heirs.

His third brother, the duke of Anjou, had ſome time before been choſen king of Poland; and hearing of his brother's death, he with ſome difficulty eſcaped to France, where he took quiet poſſeſſion of that crown, by the name of Henry III.

Religion at that time ſupplied to the reformed nobility of France the feudal powers they had loſt. The heads of the Proteſtants could raiſe armies of Hugonots. The governors of provinces behaved in them as if they had been independent of the crown; and the parties were ſo equally balanced, that the name of the king alone turned the ſcale. A *holy league* was formed for the defence of the Catholic religion, at the head of which was the duke of Guiſe. The Proteſtants under the prince of Condé, and the duke of Alençon, the king's brother, called the German princes to their aſſiſtance; and a ſixth civil war broke out in 1577, in which the king of Spain took the part of the league, in revenge of the duke of Alençon declaring himſelf lord of the Netherlands. The civil war was finiſhed within the year, by another ſham peace. The king, ever ſince his acceſſion to the crown, had plunged himſelf into a courſe of infamous debauchery and religious extravagancies. He was entirely governed by his profligate favourite, but he poſſeſſed natural good ſenſe. He began to ſuſpect that the proſcriptions of the Proteſtants, and the ſetting aſide from the ſucceſſion the king of Navarre, on account of his religion, which was aimed at by the holy league, was with a view to place the duke of Guiſe, the idol of the Roman Catholics, on the throne, to which that duke had ſome diſtant pretenſions. To ſecure himſelf on the throne, a ſeventh civil war broke out in 1579, and another in the year 1585, both of them to the diſadvantage of the Proteſtants, through the abilities of the duke of Guiſe. The king thought him now ſo dangerous, that after inviting him in a friendly manner to court, both he and his brother, the cardinal, were by his majeſty's orders, and in a manner under his eyes, baſely aſſaſſinated in 1588. The leaguers, upon this, declared that Henry had forfeited his crown, and was an enemy to religion. This obliged him to throw himſelf into the arms of the Proteſtants: but while he was beſieging Paris, where the leaguers had their greateſt force, he was in his turn aſſaſſinated by one Clement, a young enthuſiaſtic monk, in 1589. In Henry III. ended the line of Valois.

The readers of hiſtory are well acquainted with the difficulties, on account of his religion, which Henry IV. king of Navarre *, head of the houſe of Bourbon, and the next heir by the Salic law, had to encounter before he mounted the throne. The leaguers were headed by the duke of Maine, brother to the late duke of Guiſe; and they drew from his cell the decrepit cardinal of Bourbon, uncle of the king of Navarre, to proclaim him king of France. Being ſtrongly ſupported by the power of Spain and Rome, all the glorious actions performed by Henry, his courage and magnanimity, ſeemed only to make him more illuſtriouſly unfortunate: for he and his little court were ſometimes without common neceſſaries. He was, however, perſonally beloved; and no objection lay againſt him but that of religion. The leaguers, on the other hand, ſplit among themſelves;

* A ſmall kingdom lying upon the Pyrenean mountains, of the greateſt part of which, Upper Navarre, Henry's predeceſſors had been unjuſtly diſpoſſeſſed, by Ferdinand, king of Spain, about the year 1512.

ſelves; and the French nation in general, being jealous of the Spaniards, who availed themſelves of the public diſtractions, Henry, after experiencing a variety of good and bad fortune, came ſecretly to a reſolution of declaring himſelf a Roman Catholic. This was called a meaſure of prudence if not of neceſſity, as the king of Spain had offered his daughter Iſabella Clara Eugenia to be queen of France, and would have married her to the young duke of Guiſe.

In 1593, Henry went publicly to maſs, as a mark of his converſion. This complaiſance wrought wonders in his favour; and having with great difficulty obtained abſolution from the pope, all France ſubmitted to his authority, and he had only the crown of Spain to contend with, which he did for ſeveral years with various fortune. In 1598 he publiſhed the famous edict of Nantes, which ſecured to his old friends the Proteſtants the free exerciſe of their religion; and next year the treaty of Vervins was concluded with Spain. Henry next chaſtiſed the duke of Savoy, who had taken advantage of the late troubles in his kingdom; and applied himſelf with wonderful attention and ſucceſs (aſſiſted in all his undertakings by his miniſter, the great Sully), to cultivate the happineſs of his people, by encouraging manufactures, particularly that of ſilk, the benefit of which France feels at this day. Having re-eſtabliſhed the tranquillity, and in a great meaſure ſecured the happineſs of his people, he formed connexions with the neighbouring powers for reducing the ambition of the houſe of Auſtria; for which purpoſe, it is ſaid, he had formed great ſchemes, and collected a formidable army; others ſay (for his intention does not clearly appear), that he deſigned to have formed Chriſtendom into a great republic, of which France was to be the head, and to drive the Turks out of Europe; while others attribute his preparations to more ignoble motives, that of a criminal paſſion for a favourite princeſs, whoſe huſband had carried her for protection into the Auſtrian dominions. Whatever may be in theſe conjectures, it is certain, that while he was making preparations for the coronation of his queen, Mary of Medicis, and was ready to enter upon his grand expedition, he was aſſaſſinated in his coach in the ſtreets of Paris, by one Ravaillac, like Clement, another young enthuſiaſt, in 1610.

Lewis XIII. ſon to Henry IV. deſervedly named the Great, was but nine years of age at the time of his father's death. As he grew up, he diſcarded his mother and her favourites, and choſe for his miniſter the famous cardinal Richelieu, who put a period, by his reſolute and bloody meaſures, to the remaining liberties of France and to the religious eſtabliſhment of the Proteſtants there, by taking from them Rochelle, though Charles I. of England, who had married the French king's ſiſter, made ſome weak efforts by his fleet and arms to prevent it. This put an end to the civil wars, on account of religion in France. Hiſtorians ſay, that in theſe wars above a million of men loſt their lives; that 150,000,000 livres were ſpent in carrying them on; and that nine cities, four hundred villages, two thouſand churches, two thouſand monaſteries, and ten thouſand houſes, were burnt, or otherwiſe deſtroyed, during their continuance.

Richelieu, by a maſterly train of politics, though himſelf was next to an enthuſiaſt for popery, ſupported the Proteſtants of Germany, and Guſtavus Adolphus, againſt the houſe of Auſtria; and after quelling all the rebellions and conſpiracies which had been formed againſt him in France, he died ſome months before Lewis XIII. who, in 1643, left his ſon, afterwards the famous Lewis XIV. to inherit his kingdom.

During that prince's non-age, the kingdom was torn in pieces under the

adminiſtration of his mother Anne of Auſtria, by the factions of the great, and the diviſions between the court and parliament, for the moſt trifling cauſes, and upon the moſt deſpicable principles. The prince of Conde flamed like a blazing ſtar; ſometimes a patriot, ſometimes a courtier, and ſometimes a rebel. He was oppoſed by the celebrated Turenne, who from a proteſtant had turned papiſt. The nation of France was involved at once in civil and domeſtic wars; but the queen-mother having made choice of cardinal Mazarin for her firſt miniſter, he found means to turn the arms even of Cromwell againſt the Spaniards, and to divide the domeſtic enemies of the court ſo effectually among themſelves, that when Lewis aſſumed the reins of government in his own hands, he found himſelf the moſt abſolute monarch that had ever ſat upon the throne of France. He had the good fortune, on the death of Mazarin, to put the domeſtic adminiſtration of his affairs into the hands of Colbert, whom I have more than once mentioned, who formed new ſyſtems for the glory, commerce, and manufactures of France, all which he carried to a ſurpriſing height.

To write the hiſtory of this reign, would be to write that of all Europe. Ignorance and ambition were the only enemies of Lewis; through the former, he was blind to every patriotic duty of a king, and promoted the intereſts of his ſubjects only that they might the better anſwer the purpoſes of his greatneſs: by the latter he embroiled himſelf with all his neighbours, and wantonly rendered Germany a diſmal ſcene of devaſtation. By his impolitic and unjuſt revocation of the edict of Nantes, in the year 1685, with the dragooning the proteſtants that followed it, he obliged them to take ſhelter in England, Holland, and different parts of Germany, where they eſtabliſhed the ſilk manufactories, to the great prejudice of their own country. He was ſo blind by flattery, that he arrogated to himſelf the divine honours paid to the pagan emperors of Rome. He made and broke treaties for his own conveniency, and at laſt raiſed againſt himſelf a confederacy of almoſt all the other princes of Europe; at the head of which was king William III. of England. He was ſo well ſerved, that he made head for ſome years againſt this alliance; but having provoked the Engliſh by his repeated infidelities, their arms, under the duke of Marlborough, and the Auſtrians, under the prince Eugene, rendered the latter part of his life as miſerable as the beginning of it was ſplendid. His reign, from the year 1702 to 1712, was one continued ſeries of defeats and calamities; and he had the mortification of ſeeing thoſe places taken from him, which in the former part of his reign were acquired at the expence of many thouſand lives. Juſt as he was reduced, old as he was, to the deſperate reſolution of collecting his people, and dying at their head, he was ſaved by the Engliſh Tory miniſtry deſerting the cauſe, withdrawing from their allies, and concluding the peace of Utrecht, in 1713. He ſurvived his deliverance but two years; and in his laſt hours diſplayed a greatneſs of mind worthy of his elevated ſituation, "Why do ye weep?" ſaid he to his domeſtics, "Did you think me immortal?" He died on the firſt of September, 1715, and was ſucceeded by his great-grandſon Lewis XV. the late king.

The partiality of Lewis XIV. to his natural children might have involved France in a civil war, had not the regency been ſeized upon by the duke of Orleans, a man of ſenſe and ſpirit, and the next legitimate prince of the blood, who having embroiled himſelf with Spain, the king was declared of age in 1722, and the regent, on the 5th of December 1723, was carried off by an apoplexy.

The reader is not to imagine that I am to follow the affairs of France through

through all the inconſiſtent ſcenes of fighting and treating with the ſeveral powers of Europe, which are to be found in their reſpective hiſtories. Among the firſt acts of the late king's government, was his nominating his preceptor, afterwards cardinal Fleury, to be his firſt miniſter. Though his ſyſtem was entirely pacific, yet the ſituation of affairs in Europe, upon the death of the king of Poland, in 1734, more than once embroiled him with the houſe of Auſtria. The intention of the French king was to replace his father-in law, Staniſlaus, on the throne of Poland. In this he failed through the interpoſition of the Ruſſians and Auſtrians; but Staniſlaus enjoyed the title of king, and the revenues of Lorraine, during the remainder of his life. The connection between France and Spain forced the former to become principals in a war with Great Britain; in the management of which, the latter was ſo ill ſeconded by her allies, that it was finiſhed by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748.

In the year 1757, Francis Damien, an unhappy wretch, whoſe ſullen mind, naturally unſettled, was inflamed by the diſputes between the king and his parliament relative to religion, embraced the deſperate reſolution of attempting the life of his ſovereign. In the duſk of the evening, as the king prepared to enter his coach, he was ſuddenly wounded, though ſlightly, with a penknife, between the fourth and fifth ribs, in the preſence of his ſon, and in the midſt of his guards. The daring aſſaſſin had mingled with the crowd of courtiers, and was inſtantly betrayed by his diſtracted countenance. He declared it was never his intention to kill the king, but that he only meant to wound him, that God might touch his heart, and incline him to reſtore the tranquillity of his dominions by re-eſtabliſhing the parliament, and baniſhing the archbiſhop of Paris, whom he regarded as the ſource of the preſent commotions. In theſe frantic and incoherent declarations he perſiſted amidſt the moſt exquiſite tortures; and after human ingenuity had been exhauſted in deviſing new modes of torment, his judges, tired out with his obſtinacy, conſigned him to a death, the inhumanity of which is increaſed by the evident madneſs that ſtimulated to the fatal attempt; and which might fill the heart of ſavages with horror. He was conducted to the common place of execution, amidſt a vaſt concourſe of the populace; ſtripped naked, and faſtened to the ſcaffold by iron gyves. One of his hands was then burnt in liquid flaming ſulphur. His thighs, legs, and arms, were torn with red hot pincers; boiling oil, melted lead, roſin, and ſulphur were poured into the wounds; and to complete the awful cataſtrophe, tight ligatures being tied round his limbs he was torn to pieces by young and vigorous horſes.

The Jeſuits having rendered themſelves univerſally odious by their ſhare in the conſpiracy againſt the late king of Portugal, fell in France under the laſh of the civil power, for certain fraudulent mercantile tranſactions. They refuſed to diſcharge the debts of one of their body, who had become bankrupt for a large ſum, and who was ſuppoſed to act for the benefit of the whole ſociety. As a monk, indeed, he muſt neceſſarily do ſo. The parliaments eagerly ſeized an opportunity of humbling their ſpiritual enemies. The Jeſuits were every where cited before thoſe high tribunals in 1761, and ordered to do juſtice to their creditors. They ſeemed to acquieſce in the deciſion, but delayed payment under various pretences. New ſuits were commenced againſt them, in 1762, on account of the pernicious tendency of their writings. In the courſe of theſe proceedings, which the king endeavoured in vain to prevent, they were compelled to produce their INSTITUTE, or the rules of their order, hitherto ſtudiouſly concealed. That myſterious volume, which was found to contain maxims ſubverſive of all civil government, and even of the fundamental principles of morals, com-

pleted their ruin. All their colleges were ſeized, all their effects confiſcated; and the king, aſhamed or afraid to protect them, not only reſigned them to their fate, but finally expelled them the kingdoms, by a ſolemn edict, and utterly aboliſhed the order of Jeſus in France.

Elated with this victory over eccleſiaſtical tyranny, the French parliaments attempted to ſet bounds to the abſolute power of the crown, and ſeemed determined to confine it within the limits of law. Not ſatisfied with refuſing, as uſual, to regiſter certain oppreſſive edicts, or with remonſtrating againſt them, they ordered criminal proſecutions to be commenced againſt the governors of ſeveral provinces, acting in the king's name, who had enforced the regiſtration of thoſe edicts. The magnanimity of theſe aſſemblies had awakened new ideas in the boſoms of the French; they were taught by the late remonſtrances to conſider their inherent rights; and this flame, in the ſucceeding reign, burſt forth with accumulated force, and overwhelmed the throne of deſpotiſm.

As to the war with Great Britain, which was ended by the peace of Fontainebleau, in 1763, the chief events attending it, ſo humiliating to France, have been already mentioned in the hiſtory of England, and therefore need not be recapitulated here.

Corſica, a ſmall iſland in the Mediterranean, had long reſiſted with manly firmneſs the oppreſſive councils of the Genoeſe, who claimed the ſovereignty over it, by right of conqueſt. But unable to ſupport thoſe pretenſions, Genoa transferred them to France, on condition that Lewis ſhould put her in full poſſeſſion of the adjacent iſland of Capraria, which the Corſicans had lately invaded and reduced. To execute his engagements, powerful armaments were fitted out by Lewis, at Antibes and Toulon; twenty battalions of French were landed in Corſica; and the natives, whoſe free ſuffrages had ſummoned Paoli, one of their principal chiefs, to the ſupreme government of the iſland, determined to defend their liberties to the utmoſt.

A ſharp and bloody war, ſuch as ſuited the inferior numbers of the inhabitants and the nature of the country, was carried on in all the faſtneſſes and mountainous parts of the iſland; and it was not till after the French had fatally experienced, in two ſucceſſive campaigns, the enthuſiaſtic courage which animates the champions of Freedom, that they overwhelmed by their ſuperior numbers this unfortunate people; nor had Lewis much reaſon to triumph in an acquiſition, to attain which he had ſacrificed ſeveral thouſands of his braveſt troops, and only extended his dominion over a rugged and unproductive iſland.

The late unfortunate king, Lewis XVI. ſucceeded his grandfather, Lewis XV. on the 10th of May, 1774. Several regulations were made ſince his acceſſion, highly favourable to the general intereſts of the nation, particularly the ſuppreſſion of the Muſquetaires, and ſome other corps which being adapted more to the parade of guarding the royal perſon than any real military ſervice, were ſupported at a great expenſe, without an adequate return of benefit to the ſtate. One remarkable circumſtance which attended this reign, was the placing of Mr. Necker, a proteſtant and a native of Switzerland, at the head of the French finances, in 1776. Poſſeſſed of diſtinguiſhed and acknowledged abilities, his appointment would have excited no ſurpriſe, had it not been contrary to the conſtant policy of France, which had carefully excluded the aliens of her country and faith from the controul of the revenue. It now ſtood forward as a new inſtance of enlargement of mind and liberality of ſentiment; and will to poſterity mark the prominent features of the reign of Lewis the ſixteenth. Under the direction of this gentleman, a general reform took place in France, through every department in the revenue. When hoſtilities commenced in 1778

between France and Great Britain, in conſequence of the aſſiſtance afforded by the former to the revolted Britiſh colonies in America, the people of France were not burthened with new taxes for carrying on the war; but the public revenue was augmented by his economy, improvements, and reformation, that were introduced into the management of the finances. In conſequence of this national economy, the navy of France was alſo raiſed to ſo great a height, as to become truly formidable to Great Britain.

With a moſt laudable zeal to extend the dominion of ſcience, Lewis fitted out ſeveral veſſels on aſtronomical diſcoveries. The chevalier de Borda was inſtructed to aſcertain the exact poſition of the Canary iſlands and Cape de Verd; and the different degrees of the coaſt of Africa from Cape Spartel to the iſland of Goree. The chevalier Grenier, who had traverſed the Indian ſeas to improve the charts and correct the errors of former navigators, was liberally rewarded by a monarch who aſpired to immortaliſe the æra of his power by expeditions beneficial to mankind.

The viſit of the emperor of Germany to the court of Paris was another occurrence that excited the attention of Europe. Averſe to pomp, he choſe to travel under the humble title of count Falkenſtein; he was received by Lewis with that reſpect which was due to the imperial dignity, and the regard that he was impatient to teſtify to the brother of his royal conſort. During ſix weeks that the emperor remained at Paris, his hours were inceſſantly devoted to examine the various eſtabliſhments of that capital, and in viewing the manufactures. With the ſame ſpirit of inquiry, he made a tour through the different provinces of the kingdom, and in his journey endeavoured to glean whatever might be advantageous to his own dominions.

Amidſt the fury of war, Lewis diſplayed that regard for ſcience which had early formed a ſtriking characteriſtic of his reign. Previous to the commencement of hoſtilities, the Engliſh had ſent two veſſels into the South ſeas, commanded by captains Cook and Clerke, to explore the coaſts and iſlands of Japan and California; the return of thoſe veſſels was hourly expected in Europe; and Lewis, with a conſiderate humanity which reflects the brighteſt luſtre on his character, by a circular letter to all his naval officers, commanded them to abſtain from all hoſtilities againſt theſe ſhips, and to treat them as neutral veſſels. The letters mentioned alſo in terms of the higheſt reſpect Captain Cook, who had long diſtinguiſhed himſelf in ſucceſſive voyages of diſcovery. But death allowed not that celebrated navigator to enjoy this grateful teſtimony to his merit; for in one of the newly-diſcovered iſlands, he had already fallen a victim to the blind fury of the ſavage inhabitants.

At the beginning of the year 1780, in conſequence of the repreſentations of Mr. Necker, a variety of unneceſſary offices in the houſehold of the queen were aboliſhed; and ſundry other important regulations adopted, for the eaſe of the ſubject, and the general benefit of the kingdom. Could we implicitly credit his memorial, he changed the exceſs of the diſburſements (at leaſt one million ſterling) of the year 1776, into an exceſs of revenue in the year 1780, to the amount of 445,000l. But the meaſures of Mr. Necker were not calculated to procure him friends at court; the vain, the intereſted, and the ambitious, naturally became his enemies; and the king appears not to have poſſeſſed ſufficient firmneſs of mind to ſupport an upright and able miniſter. He was therefore diſplaced, and is ſaid to have been particularly oppoſed by the queen's party.

The freedom of America had been the grand object of France, and that having been acknowledged in the fulleſt and moſt expreſs terms by Great Britain, the preliminary articles of peace were ſigned at Paris on

the 20th of January, 1783; but the immenſe expenſes incurred were found at laſt to be much more than the revenues of the kingdom could by any means ſupport; and the miſerable exigencies to which government was reduced, contributed no doubt to bring about the preſent revolution.

In the various wars of France with England, particularly in the laſt and preſent centuries, no object appears of more conſequence to her naval operations than the obtaining a port in the Channel. With a view of obviating this want, the ableſt engineers in that kingdom have proceeded, by the moſt aſtoniſhing and ſtupendous works, to render the port of Cherburgh capable of receiving and protecting a royal navy. Since the laſt peace, they have proſecuted this work at an annual expenſe of upwards of 200,000l.; and expectation is ſo ſanguine, that it is thought a year or two more will effect this arduous and important undertaking.

In the year 1786 a treaty of navigation and commerce was concluded between the two courts of London and Verſailles, and this having concluded the tranſactions between the two kingdoms, we have now only to give an account of the late revolution.

The ambition of the French government, which made it acquainted with liberty, in aſſiſting the inſurgents in America and Holland, excited a ſpirit amongſt the people, which could not well admit of the continuance of arbitrary power at home. The diſmiſſion of monſieur Necker from the direction of public affairs, and ſucceeding miniſters being endowed neither with his integrity or abilities, the finances of the nation were on the point of being entirely ruined. And when the edict for regiſtering the loan at the concluſion of 1785, which amounted to the ſum of three millions three hundred and thirty thouſand pounds, was preſented to the parliament of Paris, the murmurs of the people, and the remonſtrances of that aſſembly, aſſumed a more legal and formidable form. The king, however, ſignified to the ſelect deputations that were commiſſioned to convey to him their remonſtrances, that he expected to be obeyed without farther delay. The ceremony of the regiſtering took place on the next day, but was accompanied with a reſolution, importing, that public economy was the only genuine ſource of abundant revenue, the only means of providing for the neceſſity of the ſtate, and reſtoring that credit, which borrowing had reduced to the brink of ruin.

This proceeding was no ſooner known than the king required the attendance of the grand deputation of parliament; he eraſed from their records the reſolution that had been adopted; and declared himſelf ſatisfied with the conduct of monſieur de Calonne, his comptroller-general.

However gratified by the ſupport of his ſovereign, monſieur de Calonne could not fail of feeling himſelf deeply mortified by the oppoſition of the parliament. An anxious inquiry into the ſtate of the public finances had convinced him that the expenditure had far exceeded the revenues; in the preſent ſituation, to impoſe new taxes was impoſſible, to continue the method of borrowing was ruinous, and to have recourſe only to economical reforms, would be found wholly inadequate; and he heſitated not to declare that it would be impoſſible to place the finances on a ſolid baſis, but by the reformations of whatever was vicious in the conſtitution of the ſtate. To give weight to this reform, the miniſter was ſenſible that ſomething more was neceſſary than royal authority; he perceived that the parliament was neither a fit inſtrument for introducing a new order into public affairs, nor would ſubmit to be a paſſive machine for ſanctioning the plans of a miniſter, even if theſe plans were the emanations of perfect wiſdom.

Under

Under theſe circumſtances, the only alternative that ſeemed to remain was to have recourſe to ſome other aſſembly, more dignified and ſolemn in its character, and that ſhould conſiſt in a greater degree of members from the various orders of the ſtate, and the different provinces of the kingdom; but the true and legitimate aſſembly of the nation, the ſtates-general, had not met ſince the year 1614. Another aſſembly had occaſionally been ſubſtituted in the room of the ſtates-general; this was diſtinguiſhed by the title of the *notables*, or men of note, and conſiſted of a number of perſons from all parts of the kingdom, chiefly ſelected from the higher orders of the ſtate, and nominated by the king himſelf. This aſſembly had been convened by Henry the Fourth, and again by Lewis the Thirteenth; and was now once more ſummoned by the authority of the preſent monarch, and the 29th of January, 1787, was the period appointed for their opening.

It was under great difficulties that monſieur de Calonne firſt met the aſſembly of the notables, and opened his long-expected plan. He began, by ſtating that the public expenditure had for centuries paſt exceeded the revenues; that a very conſiderable deficiency had of courſe exiſted; and that at his own acceſſion to office it was three millions three hundred and thirty thouſand pounds.

To remedy this evil, the comptroller-general recommended a territorial impoſt, in the nature of the Engliſh land-tax, from which no rank or order of men were to be exempted; an inquiry into the poſſeſſions of the clergy, which hitherto had been exempted from bearing a proportion of the public burthens: the various branches of internal taxation were alſo to undergo a ſtrict examination; and a conſiderable reſource was preſented in mortgaging the demeſne lands of the crown.

Before monſieur Necker retired from the management of the finances, he had publiſhed his Compte rendu au Roi, in which France was repreſented as poſſeſſing a clear ſurplus of four hundred and twenty-five thouſand pounds ſterling. This performance had been read with avidity, and had been conſidered as an æra in the hiſtory of France. The credit of this ſtatement was ably vindicated by monſieur de Brienne, archbiſhop of Toulouſe, and by the count de Mirabeau, a ſtill more formidable enemy to Calonne. His eloquence, however, might have ſucceſsfully vindicated his ſyſtem and reputation againſt the calculations of Brienne, and invectives of Mirabeau; but the genius of the comptroller-general ſunk under the influence of the three great bodies of the nation. The grand and eſſential object of reform was to equaliſe the public burthens, and, by rendering the taxes general, to diminiſh the load of the lower and moſt uſeful claſſes of the people. The ancient nobility and the clergy had ever been free from all public aſſeſſment; the crowds of new nobleſſe, who had purchaſed their patents, were by that ſhameful cuſtom exempted, both themſelves and their poſterity from contributing proportionably to the expenſes of the ſtate; the magiſtracies likewiſe throughout the kingdom enjoyed their ſhare of exemptions; ſo that the whole weight of the taxes fell on thoſe who were leaſt able to bear them. Thus the nobility, the clergy, and the magiſtracy, were united againſt the miniſter, and the event was ſuch as might be expected. The intrigues of thoſe three bodies raiſed againſt him ſo loud a clamour, that finding it impoſſible to ſtem the torrent, monſieur de Calonne not only reſigned his place on the 12th of April, but ſoon after retired to England from the ſtorm of perſecution.

The notables proceeded in their inquiries, and it was now ſuggeſted that an aſſembly of the ſtates ſhould be called, as the notables were not competent to impoſe a new tax. As the deliberations of the notables were not carried on in ſecret, this propoſal was inſtantly circulated through the capital,

and ſuppoſed to be a new diſcovery. The notables were ſoon after diſſolved, without having accompliſhed any thing except the juſtification of monſieur Necker.

The ſtamp-act, however, was eſtabliſhed, and a bed of juſtice was held by the king on the 5th of Auguſt, 1787, at which the parliament of Paris was obliged to attend, and the edict was regiſtered, notwithſtanding their proteſt to the contrary. But the parliament, though defeated, were far from ſubdued: on the day after the king had held his bed of juſtice, they entered a formal proteſt againſt the conceſſion that had been extorted from them.

Painful as every appearance of violence muſt have proved to the mild diſpoſition of Lewis, he could not conſent to ſurrender, without a ſtruggle, that authority which had been ſo long exerciſed by his predeceſſors. Since the commencement of the preſent diſcontents, the capital had been gradually filled with conſiderable bodies of troops; and about a week after the parliament had entered the proteſt, an officer of the French guards, with a party of ſoldiers, went at break of day to the houſe of each individual member, to ſignify to him the king's command, that he ſhould immediately get into his carriage, and proceed to Troyes, a city of Champagne, about ſeventy miles from Paris, without writing or ſpeaking to any perſon out of his own houſe before his departure. Theſe orders were ſerved at the ſame inſtant; and before the citizens of Paris were acquainted with the tranſaction, the parliament were already on the road to the ſcene of their baniſhment.

So great was the reſentment of the whole nation on account of the baniſhment of the parliament, that after a month's exile it was recalled. This was ſcarcely done, when they were deſired to regiſter a loan; at which they heſitated, notwithſtanding all the manœuvres of the miniſters. At laſt the king came to the houſe, and held what is called a royal ſeſſion. The edicts were now regiſtered, but the duke of Orleans proteſted, in the preſence of the king, againſt the legality of the proceeding. The parliament proteſted againſt the legality of the ſeſſion itſelf, but to no purpoſe. The duke of Orleans, with four others, were baniſhed; the king called for the journals of the houſe, deſtroyed the proteſt, and forbad it to be inſerted again. Great clamours were raiſed by the baniſhment of the duke of Orleans, and the other members of parliament; remonſtrances were preſented by the parliaments of Paris, Bourdeaux, and Rennes, but the exiles were not recalled till the ſpring of 1788.

No alternative remained now to Lewis but to plunge his country into all the calamity of civil war, or to comply with the wiſhes of his people, and re-eſtabliſh the ſtates-general. In the firſt caſe, he muſt have expected to encounter the majority of the people, animated by the exhortations and examples of their magiſtrates: the peers of the realm had expreſſed the ſtrongeſt diſapprobation of his meaſures, nor could he even depend any longer on the princes of his blood; but what afforded moſt ſerious matter of alarm was the ſpirit lately diſplayed among the military, who, during the diſturbances in the provinces, had reluctantly been brought to draw their ſwords againſt their countrymen; and many of whoſe officers, who had recently ſerved in America, publicly proclaimed their abhorrence of deſpotiſm.

It was under theſe impreſſions, in the beginning of Auguſt, an arret was publiſhed, which fixed the meeting of the ſtates-general to the firſt of May in the enſuing year, viz. 1789; at the ſame time every ſtep was taken to ſecure the favourable opinion of the public. New arrangements took place in the adminiſtration, and monſieur Necker, whom the confidence of the people had long followed, was again introduced into the management of the

the finances; the torture, which by a former edict had been reſtricted in part, was entirely aboliſhed; every perſon accuſed was allowed the aſſiſtance of counſel, and permitted to avail himſelf of any point of law; and it was decreed that in future, ſentence of death ſhould not be paſſed on any perſon, unleſs the party accuſed ſhould be pronounced guilty by a majority at leaſt of three judges.

The eyes of all Europe were now turned on the ſtates-general, or national aſſembly, whoſe re-eſtabliſhment, in the month of May 1789, preſented a new æra in the government of France. But the moment of this meeting was far from auſpicious to the court, but greatly ſo to the intereſts of the nation. The minds of the French had long been agitated by various rumours; the unanimity that had been expected from the different orders of the ſtates was extinguiſhed by the jarring pretenſions of each; and their mutual jealouſies were attributed by the ſuſpicions of the people to the intrigues of the court, who were ſuppoſed already to repent of the haſty aſſent that had been extorted. A dearth that pervaded the kingdom increaſed the general gloom and diſcontent, and the people, preſſed by hunger, and inflamed by reſentment, were ripe for revolt. The ſovereign alſo, equally impatient of the obſtacles he inceſſantly encountered, could not conceal his chagrin; the influence of the queen in the cabinet was again eſtabliſhed, and was attended by the immediate removal of monſieur Necker. This ſtep, which evinced a total change of reſolutions, and which, from the popularity of the miniſter, was likely to produce a violent fermentation in every order of men, was followed by others equally injudicious. The ſtates-general were driven into the "Salle des Etats" where they held their meetings, by detachments of the guards, who ſurrounded them, and who waited only the orders of the court to proceed to greater extremities againſt the obnoxious repreſentatives of the nation.

Had theſe manifeſtations of vigour been only ſuſtained by inſtantly attacking and entering Paris, it is not to be doubted that, unprepared as it ſtill was, and unwilling to expoſe to the licence of an incenſed ſoldiery the lives and properties of its citizens, the capital would have been without difficulty reduced to obedience. But the delay which ſucceeded gave the inhabitants time to recover from their firſt emotions of ſurpriſe and apprehenſion. They ſaw the timidity and imbecility of the government, who, having founded the charge, dared not advance to the attack. They profited by this want of exertion; and paſſing from one extreme rapidly to another, they almoſt unanimouſly took up arms againſt their rulers. Joined by the French guards, who, from a long reſidence in the capital, had been peculiarly expoſed to ſeduction, and who at this deciſive moment abandoned their ſovereign, the Pariſians broke through every obſtacle by which they had hitherto been reſtrained. The ſupplies of arms and ammunition, which had been provided for their ſubjugation, were turned againſt the crown; and the "Hotel des Invalides," the great repoſitory of military ſtores, after a faint reſiſtance, ſurrendered.

The prince de Lambeſc, who alone, of all the officers commanding the royal troops in the vicinity of Paris, attempted to carry into execution the plan for diſarming the capital, was repulſed in a premature and injudicious attack, which he made at the head of his dragoons, near the entrance of the garden of the Thuilleries. Already the "Prevot des Marchands," monſieur de Fleſſelles, convicted of entertaining a correſpondence with the court, and detected in ſending private intelligence to monſieur de Launay, governor of the Baſtile, had been ſeized by the people, and fallen the firſt victim to general indignation. His head, borne on a lance, exhibited an alarming ſpectacle of the danger to which adherence to the ſovereign muſt expoſe in a time of anarchy and inſurrection.

The Baſtile alone remained; and while it continued in the power of the crown, Paris could not be regarded as ſecure from the ſevereſt chaſtiſement. It was inſtantly inveſted on the 14th of July, 1789, by a mixed multitude, compoſed of citizens and ſoldiers who had joined the popular banner. De Launay, who commanded in the caſtle, by an act of perfidy unjuſtifiable under any circumſtances, and which rendered his fate leſs regretted, rather accelerated than delayed the capture of that important foreſs. He diſplayed a flag of truce, and demanded a parley; but abuſing the confidence which theſe ſignals inſpired, he diſcharged a heavy fire from the cannon and muſquetry of the place upon the beſiegers, and made a conſiderable carnage. Far from intimidating, he only augmented, by ſo treacherous a breach of faith, the rage of an incenſed populace. They renewed their exertions with a valour raiſed to frenzy, and were crowned with ſucceſs. The Baſtile, that awful engine of deſpotiſm, whoſe name alone diffuſed terror, and which for many ages had been ſacred to ſilence and deſpair, was entered by the victorious aſſailants. De Launay, ſeized and dragged to the "Place de Greve," was inſtantly diſpatched, and his head carried in triumph through the ſtreets of Paris.

In this priſon were found the moſt horrible engines for putting to the ſevereſt tortures thoſe unhappy perſons whom the cruelty or jealouſy of deſpotiſm had determined to deſtroy. An iron cage, about twelve tons in weight, was found with the ſkeleton of a man in it, who had probably lingered out a great part of his days in that horrid manſion. Among the priſoners releaſed by its deſtruction were major White, a Scotſman, earl Mazarine, an Iriſh nobleman, and the count de Lorges. The former appeared to have his intellectual faculties almoſt totally impaired, by the long confinement and miſeries he had endured; and, by being unaccuſtomed to converſe with any human creature, he had forgotten the uſe of ſpeech. Earl Mazarine, on his arrival at the Britiſh ſhore, eagerly jumped out of the boat, fell down on his knees, and kiſſing the ground thrice, exclaimed, "God bleſs this land of liberty!" The count de Lorges, at a very advanced period of life, was alſo liberated, and exhibited to the public curioſity in the "Palais Royal." His ſqualid appearance, his white beard which deſcended to his waiſt, and above all, his imbecility, reſulting probably from the effect of an impriſonment of thirty-two years, were objects highly calculated to operate upon the ſenſes and paſſions of every beholder. It is indeed impoſſible not to participate in the exultation, which a capital and a country ſo highly illuminated, and ſo long oppreſſed, muſt have experienced, at the extinction of this deteſtable and juſtly dreaded priſon of ſtate. With the Baſtile expired the deſpotiſm of the French princes, which long preſcription, ſubmiſſion, and military ſtrength, ſeemed to render equally ſacred and unaſſailable; which neither the calamities of the cloſe of Lewis XIV.'s reign, the profligacy and enormities of the ſucceeding regency, nor the ſtate of degradation into which the monarchy ſunk under Lewis XV. had ever ſhaken: that power, which appeared to derive its ſupport almoſt as much from the loyalty and veneration, as from the dread and terrors of the ſubject, fell proſtrate in the duſt, and never betrayed any ſympton of returning life.

So many great events have ariſen in conſequence of this revolution, that the limits of our preſent work will not permit us to give any more than the moſt prominent features, and important conſequences of it. The next morning after the capture of the Baſtile, the monarch appeared in the national aſſembly, but without the pomp and parade of deſpotiſm. His addreſs was affectionate and conſolatory. "He lamented the diſturbances at Paris; diſavowed all conſciouſneſs of any meditated attack on the perſons

ſons of the deputies; and added, that he had iſſued orders for the immediate removal of the troops from the vicinity of the metropolis. The tear of ſympathy ſtarted into almoſt every eye. An expreſſive ſilence firſt pervaded the aſſembly, which preſently was ſucceeded by a burſt of applauſe and acclamation. On the 16th, the king having intimated to the national aſſembly his intention of viſiting Paris the following day, he accordingly, on the morning of the 17th, left Verſailles in a plain dreſs, and with no other equipage than two carriages, with eight horſes each; in the firſt of which he rode himſelf; a part of the national aſſembly in their robes accompanied him on foot; and the militia of Verſailles compoſed his only guard till the proceſſion arrived at the Seve, where they were relieved by the Paris militia, with the marquis de la Fayette at their head; and from this place the ſuite of the monarch amounted to about 20,000 men. The progreſs was remarkably ſlow; and no ſhout was to be heard but *Vive la nation!* Mr. Bailly, on preſenting the keys of the city, addreſſed his majeſty in a ſhort ſpeech, the exordium of which was:—"Theſe, ſir, are the keys which were preſented to Henry IV. He came to reconquer his people; it is our happineſs to have reconquered our king." On receiving the complimentary addreſſes of the mayor, &c. the king exclaimed with an air of pathetic emotion, which ſcarcely allowed him utterance, "My people may always rely upon my affection." He received from the hands of the mayor the national cockade; and when he ſhowed himſelf at the window, with this badge of patriotiſm, the joy of the people could no longer be reſtrained; the ſhout of *Vive le roi!* which had ſcarcely been heard in the former part of the day, filled the whole atmoſphere, and reſounded from one extremity of the city to the other. The return of the king to Verſailles was a real triumph. The citizens, almoſt intoxicated with joy, ſurrounded his carriage; his countenance, which in the morning bore the aſpect of melancholy, was now cheerful and ſmiling; and he appeared ſincerely to partake in the general ſatisfaction.

The events which followed, are by the candid of all parties allowed to be enveloped in an almoſt impenetrable veil of obſcurity. An incident which occurred at Verſailles contributed to excite a moſt unhappy commotion. On the 1ſt of October an entertainment was given by the gardes du corps, or king's body guards, to the officers of a regiment of Flanders, who had juſt joined them in the ſervice of guarding the monarch. Several of the officers of the national guard, with others of the military, were invited. At the ſecond courſe four toaſts were given: "the king, the queen, the dauphin, and the royal family." "The nation" was propoſed, but, according to a number of witneſſes, expreſsly rejected by the gardes du corps. After this, the queen, having been informed of the gaiety of the ſcene, perſuaded his majeſty, who was juſt returned from hunting, to accompany her with the heir apparent to the ſaloon. She appeared with the dauphin in her arms, affectionate as ſhe was lovely, and carried the royal infant through the ſaloon, amidſt the acclamations and murmurs of the ſpectators. Fired with enthuſiaſm, the ſoldiers drank the health of the king, the queen, and the dauphin, with their ſwords drawn; and the royal gueſts bowed reſpectfully and retired.

The entertainment, which had hitherto been conducted with ſome degree of order, now became a ſcene of entire confuſion. Nothing was omitted to inflame the paſſions of the military. The muſic played the favourite air—"O Richard, O my king, the world abandon thee!" the ladies of the court diſtributed *white cockades*, the anti-patriot enſign; and even ſome of the national guard, it is ſaid, had the weakneſs to accept them.

During theſe tranſactions the city of Paris was afflicted with all the evils

of famine. At this juncture the news arrived of the fatal banquet at Verſailles, with every circumſtance greatly magnified. Early on the morning of the memorable 5th of October, a woman ſallied out from the quarter of St. Euſtache; and entering the corps de garde, and ſeizing a drum, paraded the adjacent ſtreets beating an alarm, and exciting the people by clamours reſpecting the ſcarcity of bread. She was ſoon joined by a very numerous mob, chiefly of women, to the amount of 800, who proceeded to Verſailles, where the king, upon hearing their complaints, ſigned an order for bringing corn from Senlis, and de Lagni, and for removing every obſtacle which impeded the ſupply of Paris. This order was reported to the women, and they retired with gratitude and joy.

This band of Amazons were no ſooner diſperſed, than it was ſucceeded by another. The national aſſembly continued ſitting, but the ſeſſions was tumultuous, and interrupted by the ſhouts and harangues of the Pariſian fiſhwomen, who filled the galleries; their applauſe was mingled with affecting murmurs and complaints, the multitude crying out that they were actually ſtarving, and that the majority of them had eaten nothing for upwards of twenty-four hours. The preſident therefore humanely ordered that proviſions ſhould be ſought for in every part of the town, and the hall of the aſſembly was the ſcene of a miſerable, ſcanty, and tumultuous banquet. Indeed, ſuch was the dreadful famine, that the horſe of one of the gardes du corps being killed in a tumult, he was immediately roaſted, and greedily devoured by the mob.

Darkneſs and a deluge of rain added to the horrors of the night. The wretched multitudes who had travelled from Paris, were expoſed, almoſt famiſhed, to the inclemencies of the weather, in the open ſtreets: within the caſtle all was trepidation: nothing was to be heard from without but imprecations, and the voices of enraged multitudes, demanding the life of the queen and the gardes du corps. Toward midnight, however, all appeared tolerably ſtill and peaceable, when the beating of the drums, and the light of innumerable torches, announced the approach of the Pariſian army.

The day began to break at about half paſt five; and at this period, crowds of women and other deſperate perſons, breathing vengeance, and thirſting for blood, advanced to the caſtle, which, in an hour of fatal ſecurity, was left unguarded in ſeveral places. An immenſe crowd found its way into every part. The queen had been awakened a quarter of an hour before by the clamours of the women who aſſembled upon the terrace; but her waiting woman had ſatisfied her by ſaying, "that they were only the women of Paris, who ſhe ſuppoſed, not being able to find a lodging, were walking about." But the tumult approaching, and becoming apparently more ſerious, ſhe roſe, dreſſed herſelf in haſte, and ran to the king's apartment by a private paſſage. In her way ſhe heard the noiſe of a piſtol, and a muſquet, which redoubled her terror. "My friends," ſaid ſhe to every perſon ſhe met, "ſave me and my children." In the king's chamber ſhe found the dauphin, who had been brought there by one of her women; but the king was gone. Awakened by the tumult, he had ſeen from a window the multitude preſſing towards the great ſtair-caſe; and alarmed for the queen, he haſtened to her apartment, and entered it at one door in the moment ſhe had quitted it by the other. He returned without loſs of time; and having with the queen brought the princeſs royal into the chamber, they prepared to face the multitude.

In the mean time the noiſe and tumult increaſed, and appeared at the very door of the chamber. Nothing was to be heard but the moſt dreadful exclamations, with violent and repeated blows againſt the outer door, a pannel of which was broken, and inſtant death was expected by

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the royal company. Suddenly, however, the tumult ſeemed to ceaſe—every thing was quiet; and a moment after, a gentle rap was heard at the door. The door was opened, and in an inſtant the apartments were filled with the Pariſian guard. The officer who conducted them, ordered them to ground their arms. "We come," ſaid he, "to ſave the king:" and turning to ſuch of the gardes du-corps as were in the apartments, "We will ſave you alſo, gentlemen; let us from this moment be united."

The royal family now ventured to ſhow themſelves at a balcony, and received the moſt lively acclamations of reſpect from the ſoldiers and the people. A ſingle voice, or a few voices exclaimed—"The king to Paris;" and this was inſtantly followed by an univerſal acclamation enforcing the ſame demand. The king addreſſed them; "You wiſh me to go to Paris:—I will go, on the condition that I am to be accompanied by my wife and children." He was anſwered by reiterated acclamations of *Vive le roi!* It was two in the afternoon before the proceſſion ſet out. During the progreſs all was gaiety and joy among the ſoldiers and ſpectators: and ſuch was the reſpect in which the French nation ſtill held the name and perſon of their king, that the multitude were ſuperſtitiouſly perſuaded that the royal preſence would actually put an end to the famine. On his arrival, the king was congratulated by the municipality, and declared his approbation of the loyalty which the city of Paris manifeſted.

The ſpirit of the nation was ſo entirely averſe from the principles of the high ariſtocratic party, that numbers of them, particularly the king's two brothers, and ſome of the firſt rank and fortune, took refuge in foreign countries, where they applied themſelves indefatigably to the purpoſe of exciting war againſt their country.

Great preparations were made for the celebration of a grand confederation, in which the repreſentatives of the nation, the king, the ſoldiery, and all who were in oſtenſible ſituations, ſhould ſolemnly and in the face of the whole nation renew their oaths of fidelity to the new conſtitution; and this confederation was decreed to take place on the 14th of July, 1790, in honour of the taking of the Baſtile, and of the firſt eſtabliſhment of Gallic liberty. The *Champ de Mars*, ſo famous for having been the rendezvous of the troops which in the preceding year were intended to overawe the capital, was choſen for this ſolemnity. This piece of ground, which is about 400 toiſes, or 800 yards, in diameter, is bounded on the right and left by lofty trees, and commands at the further extremity a view of the military academy. In the middle of this vaſt plain an altar was erected for the purpoſe of adminiſtering the civic oath; and round it an immenſe amphitheatre was thrown up, of a league in circumference, and capable of containing 400,000 ſpectators. The entrance was through triumphal arches. The king's throne was placed under an elegant pavilion in the middle, and on each ſide of it were ſeats for the members of the national aſſembly.

The important 14th of July at length arrived. The national guards of the departments, diſtinguiſhed by their reſpective ſtandards, the battalions of infantry, and the different troops of cavalry, the marine of France, and the foreigners who ſerved under its banners, being arranged in military order, the king and the national aſſembly took a ſolemn oath to maintain the conſtitution; the armed citizens repeated it amongſt the applauſes of innumerable ſpectators. They ſwore to live free, or die; and this oath was taken on the ſame day through the whole extent of the kingdom.

The eſcape of the king and queen with their infant children, and monſieur and madame, on the 20th of June, 1791, menaced France with the convulſions of anarchy, and the horrors of civil war. The route of the royal fugitives,

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which had been expected to have been towards the Auſtrian Netherlands, the neareſt frontier of the kingdom, was in fact directed towards Metz, from the preſence of ſo gallant and accompliſhed a royaliſt as M. de Bouillé in that quarter, from its vicinity to the prince of Condé's army in Germany, and from the probable reluctance of Leopold to hazard the tranquillity of his Netherlands, by permitting any incurſion from them into France.—They reached St. Menehould, a ſmall town, about 150 miles from Paris. The king was there recogniſed by the poſtilion, who ſaid to him, "*Mon Roi, je vous connois, mais je ne vous trahirai pas.*" "I know you, my king, but I will not betray you." But the poſt-maſter, M. Drouet, leſs full of monarchic prejudice, adopted a different conduct. He refrained, with great dexterity and preſence of mind, from betraying his knowledge of the rank of the royal travellers, being much ſtruck with the reſemblance which his majeſty's countenance bore to his effigy on an aſſignat of 50 livres. The carriages taking the road to Varennes, he went a croſs-road to rejoin them; and arriving before them at Varennes, he alarmed the town and aſſembled the national guards, who, notwithſtanding the detachment of huſſars to protect his route, diſarmed them, and the KING was then *made a priſoner*: and at ſix o'clock in the afternoon of the 25th of June, their majeſties, with the dauphin and madame royale, arrived at the Thuilleries.

The new conſtitution was preſented to the king on the 3d of September, 1791, who on the 13th ſignified his acceptance of it in writing, and the following day he appeared in the aſſembly, introduced by a deputation of ſixty members, and ſolemnly conſecrated the aſſent which he had already given, and concluded with an oath, "To be faithful to the nation and to the law, and to employ the powers veſted in him for the maintenance of the conſtitution, and the due execution of the law." Soon after this, the ſecond national council aſſembled, with abilities far inferior to the firſt.

The dubious and undecided conduct of the emperor, and the refuge and protection found in the German empire by the emigrant princes, excited France to vigorous reſolutions; and a celebrated manifeſto, addreſſed to all ſtates and nations, made its appearance. The forcible meaſures purſued, had the effect of intimidating the German princes; and the emigrants were conſtrained to an ignominious diſperſion from the frontiers. But the protection of the emperor, and the Pruſſian king, afforded them aſylums more remote and leſs obtruſive. Irreſolution ſeemed to preſide in the councils of the emperor, a monarch more eminent for the mild virtues of peace than for the exertions of war. He had acknowledged the national flag, he had declared that he regarded the king of the French as abſolutely free, while the league of Pilnitz, (which, as was avowed by the court of Vienna, was not only intended to ſecure Germany from ſuch a revolution as France had experienced, but even to extinguiſh the dreaded ſource) and the protection afforded to the emigrants, were infallible proofs that the emperor could not be regarded as a friend. His ſudden death, on the firſt of March, 1792, excited great conſternation among the ariſtocrats, and afforded joy and exultation to the ſupporters of the conſtitution. Another event no leſs unexpected happened in the death of the Swediſh monarch, on the 29th of the ſame month. Freſh ſpirits were diffuſed through the nation; and the ſuperſtitious vulgar imagined that they beheld the peculiar protection of heaven, in the removal of the two chief foes of France in one month.

In the progreſs of the negotiations between the national aſſembly and the court of Vienna, the young Hungarian king, excited by the influence of Pruſſia, began to exhibit more enmity and ſeverer terms. At length,

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on the 5th of April, M. de Noailles, in his dispatches to the French minister for foreign affairs, explained the propositions of the imperial court, that satisfaction should be given to the German princes proprietors of Alsace, that Avignon, which had been appropriated by France, should be restored to the Pope, and that the internal government of France should be invested with sufficient efficiency, that the other powers may have no apprehensions of being troubled by France. Those terms produced a declaration of war against Francis I. king of Hungary and Bohemia, decreed by the assembly and ratified by the French king, on the 24th of April.

The first movement of the French was stained with defeat, and with the unpropitious murder of Theobald Dillon, their leader, who fell a prey to the suspicious and savage ferocity of some of the soldiers, who fled from the enemy, but attacked their general. The court of Vienna had, in the beginning of July, published a declaration explaining the cause of the war, and retorting on the French nation some of the heavy charges contained in its declaration of war against the king of Hungary and Bohemia, now emperor of Germany. On the 26th day of the same month, the Prussian monarch issued a concise exposition of the reasons which determined him to take up arms against France. He pleads his alliance with the emperor, and that, as sovereign of a German state, he was bound to interfere to prevent the violation of the rights of the German princes of Alsace and Lorraine, and the invasion of the territories of others: and he honestly concludes by avowing that it is his intention to repress the too great liberty of France, which might afford a dangerous example to neighbouring countries. At the same time the duke of Brunswick, general of the combined armies of Austria and Prussia, published, at Coblentz, a declaration to the inhabitants of France, conceived in the most haughty and presumptuous terms; he declared his intention of putting a stop to the anarchy which prevailed in France, and of restoring the king to his power; and yet he afterwards expresses his design not to interfere in the internal government! It is unnecessary to dwell on the other insolent parts of this memorial, in which France is already regarded as a conquered country, and directions are given to the magistrates, national guards, and inhabitants at large: but the threat that the city of Paris should be given up to military execution in case the least outrage should be offered to the king, queen, or royal family, is worthy of a Hun.

The excesses of the night between the 9th and 10th of August, we relate with pain. At midnight the alarm-bell sounded in every quarter of Paris, the *generale* was beat, and the citizens flew to arms. The palace of the Thuilleries was attacked by the multitude; and the king, queen, and royal family, were forced to take refuge in the national assembly. At first the Swiss guards (who were obnoxious to the people, and had been ineffectually proscribed by repeated decrees of the assembly, the king not being allowed to have a foreign guard) repelled the populace; but these being reinforced by the Marseillois, and federates from Brest, bodies which the Jacobins seem to have brought to Paris to balance the Swiss, and by national guards, the gates of the palace were burst open. The artillery joined the assailants. The consequences were that, after a slaughter of about four hundred on each side, the Swiss guards were exterminated, and the palace ransacked.

The month of September seemed pregnant with the total ruin of French freedom, while the three following months reversed the scene and exhibited a tide of success, on the part of France, perhaps unexampled in modern history.—It is with infinite concern that we direct the attention of our readers to the prison scene, which occurred on the 2d and 3d of September.

tember. The horrid maſſacre of the defenceleſs priſoners, and other ariſtocrats, which took place at that period, is an eternal diſgrace to the Pariſian populace; who, in their fury, ſpared not even that gentle ſex which all civiliſed nations hold in the higheſt reſpect. The number of the ſlain has doubtleſs been exaggerated, as uſual; yet ſuppoſing that, by the moſt moderate account, only two thouſand periſhed, the enormity of the deed remains the ſame. Some extenuation might be offered for the affair of the 10th of Auguſt, in which a people, who ſuppoſed themſelves betrayed to ſlavery, and all its evils, ſo recently experienced and ſhaken off, aſſumed their revenge and their cauſe into their own hands; but no defence can be offered for this unneceſſary crime. Had the combined armies beſieged Paris, it is difficult to conceive what aid they could have found from two or three thouſand ariſtocrats, and many of theſe ſecured in chains.

A national convention had been called, to determine on the charges brought againſt the king. They met on the 24th of September, and on the firſt day of the meeting, the abolition of royalty in France was decreed by acclamation: and the following day it was ordered that all public acts ſhould be dated "the firſt year, &c. of the French republic." But hardly was this convention conſtituted, when a violent faction appeared, headed by Marat*, Robeſpierre, and others, who repeatedly degraded its tranſactions by their fanaticiſm; and being ſupported by the Jacobins and Pariſian populace, proved too powerful for the convention to puniſh, as it wiſhed. Repeated inſtances have proved that the convention is not free, but muſt vote as the mob of Paris dictates; the moderation of the members being often obliged to yield to the indecent applauſes and hiſſes of the galleries.

So rapid was the progreſs of the French arms, and ſo great were the diſtreſſes in the combined armies, ariſing from a ſcarcity of proviſions, from a long rainy ſeaſon, and from a conſiderable mortality among the Pruſſians, by the French accounts, eſtimated at one half, that the Pruſſians retreated from the dominions of France, whoſe example the Auſtrians ſoon followed.

Even at the very time that Paris was in the greateſt danger, the invaſion of Savoy was ordered. On the 21ſt of September general Monteſquiou entered the Savoyard territories, ſeized on the frontier poſts and caſtles without reſiſtance, and two days after took Montmelian. Chamberry and all Savoy ſoon followed; but the conqueſt not being reſiſted, was productive of no military glory. The imprudence of the national convention, in permitting Savoy to incorporate itſelf with France, has excited wonder. After frequent declarations, that the French would enter into no war, with any view to conqueſt, their conduct in this reſpect was abſurd and impolitic. It ſubjected them to the merited reproach that, under the pretence of liberty, they maintained the deſtructive maxims of their ancient government; and that their wiſhes to increaſe their territory, perhaps to ſubjugate Europe, remained the ſame. Admiral Truguet, commanding a ſquadron in the Mediterranean, captured Nice, Villa-Franca, and the fortreſs of Montalban, belonging to the Sardinian king.

The conqueſt of Savoy was regarded as a trifle; but when Cuſtine be-

* Marat fell by the hands of female vengeance. Marie Anne Charlotte Cordey, ſtrongly impreſſed with the calamities which he had brought upon her country, took a journey to Paris, in July, 1793, on purpoſe to put a period to his exiſtence. Meeting Marat as he was coming from the bath, and entering into converſation with him, (more certainly to identify his perſon), ſhe plunged a dagger into his breaſt; upon which he fell, and ſoon expired. Glorying in having exterminated a monſter, ſhe delivered herſelf up to the officers of juſtice, and with the utmoſt firmneſs ſubmitted to her fate, in having her head ſevered by the guillotine, in the 25th year of her age.

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gan his acquiſitions in Germany, every eye was turned to the rapidity and importance of his progreſs, till diverted by the wonders of Dumouriez. Spires yielded to the French arms on the 30th of September, and Worms ſoon after followed; ample ſupplies of proviſions and ammunition were found in theſe cities. Cuſtine, purſuing his courſe along the left ſhore of the Rhine, next captured Mentz, and afterwards Frankfort. He was eager to proceed to Coblentz, that noted ſeat of the counter-revolutioniſts; but the Pruſſians and Auſtrians at length indicated a renewal of hoſtilities by garriſoning that town, and encamping in the adjacent country.

The conqueſt of the Auſtrian Netherlands forms the next grand object. Dumouriez had promiſed to paſs his Chriſtmas at Bruſſels; and what was regarded as an idle vaunt proved very modeſt, for that city was in his hands by the 14th of November. That able general, having entered the Netherlands on the firſt or the ſecond of that month, with an army of forty thouſand men, ſince much increaſed, and with a moſt formidable train of artillery, repeated engagements with the Auſtrian army, commanded by the duke of Saxe-Teſchen, governor of the Auſtrian Netherlands, and by general Beaulieu, which however exceeded not twenty thouſand, occupied the firſt five days. At length, on the 6th of November, a deciſive battle was fought at Jamappes, which decided the fate of the Netherlands. The conteſt was very general, all the points of the enemy's flanks and lines were attacked at once; all the bodies of the French were in action, and almoſt every individual fought perſonally. The cannonade began at ſeven in the morning; Dumouriez ordered the village of Carignon to be attacked, becauſe he could not attempt the heights of Jamappes, till he had taken that village: at noon the French infantry formed in columns, and rapidly advanced to decide the affair by the bayonet. After an obſtinate defence, the Auſtrians at two o'clock retired in the utmoſt diſorder.

Dumouriez immediately advanced, and took poſſeſſion of the neighbouring town of Mons, where the French were received as brethren. The tidings arriving at Bruſſels, the court was ſtruck with an indeſcribable panic; and inſtantly fled to Ruremond, whence it was again to be driven by the arms of Miranda. Tournay ſurrendered to a detachment on the 8th of November. Dumouriez having refreſhed his troops at Mons, advanced to Bruſſels, where, after an indeciſive engagement between his van and the Auſtrian rear, he was received with acclamations on the 14th of that month.—Ghent, Charleroi, Antwerp, Malines, or Mechlin, Louvain, Oſtend, Namur; in ſhort all the Auſtrian Netherlands, except Luxembourg, ſucceſſively followed the example of the capital; and the conqueſts of Louis XIV. were not more rapid.

Many of the prieſts, who were baniſhed, came to England, and were received with great benevolence: this was followed by the decree of the national convention againſt the emigants, by which they are declared dead in law, their effects confiſcated, and themſelves adjudged to immediate death, if they appear in France.

Another decree of the 19th of November attracted the attention of every nation in Europe. It is in the following terms: "The national convention declare, in the name of the French nation, that they will grant fraternity and aſſiſtance to all thoſe people who wiſh to procure liberty; and they charge the executive power to ſend orders to the generals, to give aſſiſtance to ſuch people, and to defend citizens who have ſuffered, or are now ſuffering, in the cauſe of liberty." This decree, and others of a ſimilar tendency, ſeem to inſtitute a political cruſade againſt all the powers of Europe.

No ſooner had Antwerp yielded to the French arms, than, in order to con-

conciliate the Belgians, the opening of the navigation of the Scheldt, shut up by the treaty of Munſter, 1648, was projected and ordered: notwithſtanding this treaty, ſo far as reſpects the ſhutting up of the navigation of this river, has been confirmed to the Dutch in ſucceeding treaties, guarantied both by the courts of Verſailles and London. The Dutch regard this meaſure as injurious to their trade, for Antwerp might prove a dangerous rival to Amſterdam. The infraction of this treaty is one of the reaſons which has induced the parliament of Great Britain to oppoſe the unwarrantable pretenſions of the French.

The memorable trial of the king commenced on the 11th of December. The iſſue is too well known; impartial hiſtory will record it to the eternal infamy of the French nation. The firmneſs of this unfortunate monarch during his trial, and at the place of execution, on the 21ſt of January, 1793, increaſed the commiſeration of every indifferent ſpectator; and callous indeed muſt be the perſon, who does not partake of the ſympathy which was felt through all Europe upon this tranſaction.

"The condemnation and execution of the king," ſaid a great ſtateſman in the Britiſh houſe of commons, "is an act as diſgraceful as any that hiſtory records; and I never can view, but with the greateſt deteſtation, the injuſtice and inhumanity that had been committed towards that unhappy monarch. Not only were the rules of criminal juſtice, rules that more than any other ought to be ſtrictly obſerved, overthrown; not only was he tried and condemned without any exiſting law to which he was perſonally anſwerable, and even contrary to laws that did actually exiſt; but the degrading circumſtances of his impriſonment, the unneceſſary and inſulting aſperity with which he had been treated, the total want of republican magnanimity in the whole tranſaction, added every aggravation to the inhumanity and injuſtice."

Lewis XVI. the late unfortunate king of the French, was born Auguſt 24, 1754, married, April 9, 1770, to Maria-Antoinetta, Archduchefs of Auſtria, born November 2, 1755; ſucceeded his grandfather Lewis XV. May 10, 1774; crowned at Rheims, June 11, 1775, beheaded Jan. 21, 1793. The iſſue of Lewis XVI. and Maria-Antoinetta are,

1. Madame Maria-Thereſa-Charlotta, born December 19, 1778.
2. Lewis-Charles, born March 27, 1785.

Brothers and ſiſters to his late majeſty.

1. Lewis-Staniſlaus-Xavier, count de Provence, born November 17, 1755: married, May 14, 1771, Maria-Joſepha-Louiſa, daughter of the king of Sardinia, born September 2, 1753.
2. Charles-Philip, count d'Artois, born October 9, 1757; married, November 6, 1773, to Maria-Thereſa, daughter of the king of Sardinia, born Jan. 21, 1776, by whom he has iſſue;
   - Louiſa-Antoine, born Jan. 24, 1778.
   - A princeſs, born Auguſt 5, 1780.
   - Another princeſs, born Jan. 8, 1783.
3. Maria Adelaide-Clotilda-Xaveria, born Sept. 23, 1759.
4. Madame Elizabeth-Philippa-Maria-Helena, born May 3, 1764.

Iſſue of Lewis XV. now living are,

1. Maria-Adelaide, duchefs of Lorraine and Bar, born 1732.
2. Victoria-Louiſa-Marie-Thereſa, born 1733.
3. Sophia-Philippina-Elizabeth-Juſtinia, born 1734.
4. Louiſa-Maria, born 1737, who went into a convent of Carmelites, and took the veil in 1770.

The SEVEN UNITED PROVINCES from the beſt AUTHORITIES.

British Statute Miles.
5 10 15 20 25 30

Dutch Miles.
1 2 3 4 5 6

THE BRITISH CHANNEL

THE NORTH SEA

THE BROAD FOURTEENS

the Reg

Vieland

Eyerland

the Waert

Harling

TEXEL I.

Burg

Broad Sand

Wor

Hin de Lop

Texel Stroom

Vlieringen

Staver

Callants Oog

Het Meer Vlieringen

Medenblyck

WEST FRIESLAND

Alkmaer

Hoorn

ZU

Gap

Edam

Ilsum

Purmerent

Monnikendam

Beverwyck

AMSTERDAM

Haerlem

Muyden

Naa

Weesp

New Canal

Leyden

Rhine R.

Haerlemmeer

Amſtel R.

Vecht R.

Westbroeck

the Hague

Segmaer

Woerden

Oudewater

Montfoort

Vran

Delft

Gouda

Yſſelſtein

Schoonhoven

Schiedam

Mouth of the Maes

Vlaerdingen

Rotterdam

Yſſelmonde

Niaupoort

Hoogkerken

Aſpa

Briel

Voorn Land

Helvoetſluys

Dordrecht

Gorcum

Waal R.

Goree

Brouwershaven

Stryen

Heusden

Sommerdyck

Over Flackee

SCHOUWEN

Tierolleen

Duive land

William ſtadt

Oudenboſch

Breda

East Scheld

Terveer

Zoutelandſ

Zeenbergen

DUTCH

Middelburg

Goes

SOUTH BEVELAND

Thoolen

Bergen op Zoom

Kuikveen

Meerle

Flushing

Bakendorp

Cassandria

Caſſand

Weſt Scheld

Blankenberghe

Oſtend

the Sluys

Ardenburg

Philippina

Sas of Ghent

FLANDERS

Hulſt

Bruges

Santvliet

Turnhout

ANTWERP

Herenthals

The SEVEN UNITED PROVINCES from the beſt AUTHORITIES.

British Statute Miles. 5 10 15 20 25 30

Dutch Miles. 1 2 3 4 5 6

3 4 5 6 7

52 53

4 5 6 Longitude East from London 7

NORTH SEA

THE BROAD FOURTEENS

the Reg.

Texel I.

Vlieland

Schelling

Ameland

Schiermonnikoog

Rottum

Borkum

the Juyst

Oosta Ems

Westa Ems

Norderney

Norden

Koning Ranzel

Huibertus Sand

Embden

EAST FRIESLAND

Leer

Eyerland

the Waert

Harlingen

Broad Sand

Burg

Vlieland Stroom

Worcum

Hinde Loopen

Wieringen

Staveren

Callunts Oog

Het Meer

Medenblyck

WEST FRIESLAND

Alkmaer

Hoorn

Enkhuysen

Enkhuyser Sand

Schokland

Urck

Blackzyl

Wollenhoven

Kuynder

Steenwyck

Sloten

Lagerwaeg

Haule

Baerd

Gunne R.

Beckhof

Linde R.

Lceglo

Orvelde

Emmen

Peſſe

Meppel

Hardenberg

Echter

Groot

Coevorden

Veechel

Schwarte Hoeve

Hafsel

Campen

ZUYDER ZEE

Elburg

Hattem

Hardenberg

Zwol

Ommen

Wecht R.

Nienhaus

Low

Oosmarsen

Bentlage

Holthusen

Mappen

March Bourtange

Ems R.

Laten

Rheide

Addinga

Winschoten

Groningen

Old Groove

Lediep

Delfzyl

Dam

Miedem

Nykerk

Dockum

Reysum

Leeuwarden

Franeker

Bergum

Zutte Meer

Room

Marlam

Ernwold

Holswert

Sneek

Ylst

Broad Sand

Texel Stroom

Burg

Worcum

Hinde Loopen

Wieringen

Staveren

Callunts Oog

Het Meer

Medenblyck

Kuynder

Steenwyck

Linde R.

Sloten

Lagerwaeg

Haule

Baerd

Gunne R.

Beckhof

NETHERLANDS,

from the beſt

AUTHORITIES.

3 *Longitude East from London* 4

NETHERLANDS, from the best AUTHORITIES.

NORTH SEA

ZEELAND

DUTCH BRABANT

AUSTRIAN GELDERS

AUSTRIAN FLANDERS

FRENCH FLANDERS

AUSTRIAN BRABANT

FRENCH HAINAULT

AUSTRIAN HAINAULT

LUXEMBURG

LIMBURG

LIEGE

STAVELO

ELECTORATE OF TREVES

Ostend
Mariekerke
Breeden
Canal
Oudenburgh
Damme
Bruges
Beernem
Ursele
Dudzele
Heyst
Cafsandria
The Sluys
Ysendyck
Philippina
Caprycke
Sas
Ghent
Eeckloo
Assenede
Ertvelde
Moerbeke
Stekene
Burcht
Beloele
Rupelmonde
Chistel
Nieuport
Keyhem
Ruddervoorde
Canal
Loutenhulle
Wingene
Baerle
Ghent or Gand
Heusden
Zele
Dunkirk
Furnes
Canal
Thorout
Ghistelles
Thielt
Deynse
Scheld R.
Dixmunde
Coolkamp
Denderm.
Moo
Oudenarde
Gavre
Impe
Alost
Roulers
Wackem
Westrem
Ecke
Lys R.
Loo
Ostkerke
Fort or Crocke
Roosebeke
Leghem
Aspere
Boorsbeke
Bergues
Canal
Rourbrugghe
Wormhout
Moorslede
Haare
Lebeke
Vicht
Courtray
Scheld R.
Denys
Eenaeme
Sotteghem
Ninove
Dender
Zellik
Wambeke
Lambeke
Vilvorde
Herent
Louvain
Haverlé
Haelen
Diest
Hasselt
Herck
Aicken
Bilsen
Maestricht
Tongres
Liers
Looz
Wonck
Roclenge
Viel
Landen
Jodoigne
Leau
Tirlemont
Leau
Leuw
Bolduc
Air la Chapelle
Cornelis Munster
Dalhem
Herstal
Herenmal
Limburg
Eupen
Verviers
Theux
Spa
Malmedy
Elsenborn
Stavelo
Born
Amel
Bullingen
Gronenburg
Schleyden
Liege
Ciney
Dinant
Namur
Huy
Andenne
Gosne
Erpent
Trieu
Lustin
Schalin
Jeneffe
Barraux
Nerin
Durbuy
Biron
Erezee
Marche en Famenne
Dochamp
Houffalize
Rochefort
Genappe
Hubermont
Champion
Engreux
Marbourg
Bertogne
Clervaux
Wampach
Bastogne
Neufchateau
Ebly
Vitry
Redel
Martilly
Suzy
Genvaux
Attert
Rulle
Villers
Vance
Tintigny
Virton
Montmedy
Longwy
Rodange
Esch
Bettenburg
Kayl
Arlon
Chatillon
Fingich
Aubange
Luxemburg
Reckingen
Roester
Remich
Ahn
N. Anwen
Elanen
Ettelbruck
Diekirch
Mersch
Capweiller
Ell
Biessen
Roodt
Mertzig
Bondorf
Feulen
Tatteler
Goesdorf
Wiltz
Hasting
Remagne
Tillance
Ochamps
Neuville
Palizeul
Orchimont
Vaux
Henville
Burnon
Michelau
Hedingen
Viandin
Wilwerdange
Mecker
Echternach
Consdorf
Zettig
Merfart
Redingen
Nittel
Treves
Bickarch
Felitz
Reulan
Rosport
Wasserbillig
Mondorf
Remich
Dasburg
Neuerburg
Costumb
Reuland
Prumm
Bovigny
Durler
Hoking
Lungebach
Eschfield
Arzfield
Bettenfeld
Ouren
Timmerle
Couant
Anselborn
Houffalize
Roger
Ottrez
Viel Salm
Ware
Stavelo
Born
Amel
Bullingen
Gronenburg
Schleyden
Verviers
Theux
Spa
Malmedy
Elsenborn
Stavelo
Liege

NETHERLANDS.

THE ſeventeen provinces, which are known by the name of the Netherlands, were formerly part of Gallia Belgica, and afterwards of the circle of Belgium or Burgundy, in the German empire. They obtained the general name of the Netherlands, Pais-Bas, or Low Countries, from their ſituation in reſpect of Germany.

Extent, situation and boundaries of the Seventeen Provinces.

Length 360, Breadth 260 } between { 49 and 54 North lat. / 2 and 7 Eaſt long.

They are bounded by the German ſea on the North; by Germany, Eaſt; by Lorrain and France, South; and by the Britiſh Channel, Weſt.

I ſhall, for the ſake of perſpicuity, and to avoid repetition, treat of the ſeventeen provinces under two great diviſions: firſt, the *Northern*, which contains the Seven United Provinces, uſually known by the name of Holland: ſecondly, the *Southern*, containing the Auſtrian and French Netherlands. The United Provinces are, properly ſpeaking, eight, viz. Holland, Overyſſel, Zealand, Frieſland, Utrecht, Groningen, Gelderland, and Zutphen; but the two latter forming only one ſovereignty, they generally go by the name of the Seven United Provinces.

Situation and extent of the United Provinces.

Length 150, Breadth nearly the ſame. } between { 51 and 54 North lat. / 3 and 7 Eaſt long.

Containing 10,000 ſquare miles, with 275 inhabitants to each.

The following, from Templeman's ſurvey of the globe, is the moſt ſatisfactory account we meet with of the geographical diviſion, including the Texel, and other iſlands:

Countries' Names. United Provinces.		Square Miles.	Lon.	Br.	Chief Cities.
Calvinists.	Overyſſel	1900	66	50	Deventer
	Holland	1800	84	52	Amsterdam
	Gelderland	986	50	40	Nimuguen
	Frieſland	810	44	34	Leuwarden
	Zutphen	644	37	33	Zutphen
	Groningen	540	45	37	Croningen
	Utrecht	450	41	22	Utrecht
	Zealand	303	29	24	Middleburg
	Texel and other iſlands	113			
Total		7546			

Air, seasons, soil, and face of the country. } Theſe provinces lie oppoſite to England, at the diſtance of 90 miles, upon the eaſt ſide of the Engliſh Channel, and are only a narrow ſlip of low ſwampy land, lying between the mouths of ſeveral great rivers, and what the induſtry of the inhabitants have gained from the ſea by means of dykes, which they have raiſed and ſtill ſupport with incredible labour and expence. The air of the United Provinces is therefore foggy and groſs, until it is purified by the froſt in winter, when the eaſt wind uſually ſets in

for about four months, and their harbours are frozen up. The moiſture of the air cauſes metals to ruſt, and wood to mould, more than in any other country, which is the reaſon of their perpetually rubbing and ſcouring, and of the brightneſs and cleanlineſs in their houſes ſo much taken notice of. The ſoil is unfavourable to vegetation, but, by the induſtry of the inhabitants in making canals, it is rendered fit for paſture, and in many places for tillage. Holland, with all its commercial advantages, is not a deſirable country to live in, eſpecially to foreigners. Here are no mountains nor riſing grounds, no plantations, purling ſtreams, or cataracts. The whole face of the country, when viewed from a tower or ſteeple, has the appearance of a continued marſh or bog, drained at certain diſtances by innumerable ditches; and many of the canals, which in that country ſerve as high-roads, are in the ſummer months no better than offenſive ſtagnated waters.

RIVERS AND HARBOURS.] The rivers are an important conſideration to the United Provinces; the chief of which are the Rhine, one of the largeſt rivers in Europe; the Maeſe, the Scheldt, and the Vecht. There are many ſmall rivers that join theſe, and a prodigious number of Canals; but there are few good harbours in the United Provinces; the beſt are thoſe of Rotterdam, Helvoetſluys, and Fluſhing; that of Amſterdam, though one of the largeſt and ſafeſt in Europe, has a bar at the entrance of it, over which large veſſels cannot paſs without being lightened.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND.] The quantity of grain produced here is not ſufficient for home conſumption; but by draining their bogs and marſhes they have many excellent meadows, which fatten lean German and Daniſh cattle to a vaſt ſize; and they make prodigious quantities of the beſt butter and cheeſe in Europe. Their country produces turf, madder, tobacco, ſome fruit and iron; but all the pit-coal and timber uſed there, and, indeed, moſt of the comforts, and even the neceſſaries of life, are imported. They have a good breed of ſheep, whoſe wool is highly valued; and their horſes and horned cattle are of a larger ſize than in any other nation in Europe. It is ſaid that there are ſome wild bears and wolves here. Storks build and hatch on their chimnies; but being birds of paſſage, they leave the country about the middle of Auguſt, with their young, and return the February following. Their river-fiſh is much the ſame as our's, but their ſea-fiſh is generally larger, owing perhaps to their fiſhing in deep water. No herrings viſit their coaſts; but they have many excellent oyſter-beds about the iſlands of the Texel, producing very large and well-taſted oyſters. Notwithſtanding all theſe inconveniences, the induſtry of the Hollanders furniſhes as great a plenty of the neceſſaries and commodities of life, and upon as eaſy terms (except to travellers and ſtrangers) as they are to be met with in any part of Europe.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.] The ſeven United Provinces are perhaps the beſt peopled of any ſpot of the ſame extent in the world. They contain, according to the beſt accounts, 113 cities and towns, 1400 villages, and about two millions of inhabitants; beſides the twenty-five towns, and the people in what is called the Lands of the Generality, or conquered countries and towns of other parts of the Netherlands*. The manners, habits, and even the

* Monſ. de Wit, at the beginning of this century, computed the people of Holland at 2,500,000, but Mr. Templeman eſtimates them only at 2,000,000, which, in proportion to the populouſneſs of England, is more than ſix to one, conſidering the extent of the country. Holland is alſo reckoned to have as many ſouls as the other ſix province; which, if true, the people of the ſeven provinces, with their appendages, muſt be very numerous.

minds

minds of the Dutch (for ſo the inhabitants of the United Provinces are called in general) ſeem to be formed by their ſituation, and to ariſe from their natural wants. Their country, which is preſerved by mounds and dykes, is a perpetual incentive to labour; and the artificial drains with which it is every where interſected, muſt be kept in perpetual repair. Even what may be called their natural commodities, their butter and cheeſe, are produced by a conſtant attention to the laborious parts of life. Their principal food they earn out of the ſea by their herring-fiſheries; for they diſpoſe of moſt of their valuable fiſhes to the Engliſh, and other nations for the ſake of gain. The air and temperature of their climate incline them to phlegmatic, ſlow diſpoſitions, both of body and mind; and yet they are irafcible, eſpecially if heated with liquor. Even their virtues are owing to their coldneſs, with regard to every object that does not immediately concern their own intereſts; for in all other reſpects they are quiet neighbours and peaceable ſubjects. Their attention to the conſtitution and independency of their country is owing to the ſame principle; for they were never known to effect a change of government but when they thought themſelves on the brink of perdition.

The valour of the Dutch becomes warm and active when they find their intereſt at ſtake; witneſs their ſea-wars with England and France. Their boors, though ſlow of underſtanding, are manageable by fair means. Their ſeamen are plain, blunt, but rough, ſurly, and an ill-natured ſort of people, and appear to be inſenſible of public ſpirit, and affection for each other. Their tradeſmen in general are reckoned honeſt in their dealings, and very ſparing of their words. Smoking tobacco is practiſed by old and young of both ſexes; and as they are generally plodding upon ways and means of getting money, no people are ſo unſociable. A Dutchman of low rank, when drunk, is guilty of every ſpecies of brutality. The Dutch have alſo been known to exerciſe the moſt dreadful inhumanities for intereſt abroad, where they thought themſelves free from diſcovery; but they are in general quiet and inoffenſive in their own country, which exhibits but few inſtances of murder, rapine, or violence. As to the habitual tippling and drinking charged upon both ſexes, it is owing in a great meaſure to the nature of their ſoil and climate. In general all appetites and paſſion ſeem to run low and cooler here than in moſt other countries, that of avarice excepted. Their tempers are not airy enough for joy, or any unuſual ſtrains of pleaſant humour, nor warm enough for love; ſo that the ſofter paſſions ſeem no natives of this country; and love itſelf is little better than a mechanical affection, ariſing from intereſt, convenience, or habit; it is talked of ſometimes among the young men, but as a thing they have heard of rather than felt, and as a diſcourſe that becomes them rather than affects them.

In whatever relates to the management of pecuniary affairs, the Dutch are certainly the moſt expert of any people; as to the knowledge of acquiring wealth, they unite the no leſs neceſſary ſcience of preſerving it. It is a kind of general rule for every man to ſpend leſs than his income, be that what it will; nor does it often enter into the heads of this ſagacious people, that the common courſe of expence ſhould equal the revenue; and when this happens, they think at leaſt they have lived that year to no purpoſe; and the report of it uſed to diſcredit a man among them, as much as any vicious or prodigal extravagance does in other countries. But this rigid frugality is not ſo univerſal among the Dutch as it was formerly; for a greater degree of luxury and extravagance has been introduced among them, as well as the other nations of Europe. Gaming is likewiſe practiſed by many of their faſhionable ladies, and ſome of them diſcover more propenſity to galantry than was known here in former times. No country can vie with Holland in the number of thoſe inhabitants whoſe lot, if not

riches, is at leaſt a comfortable ſufficiency; and where fewer failures or bankruptcies occur. Hence, in the midſt of a world of taxes and contributions, ſuch as no other country does experience, they flouriſh and grow rich. From this ſyſtematic ſpirit of regularity and moderation, joined to the moſt obſtinate perſeverance, they ſucceeded in the ſtupendous works of draining their country of thoſe immenſe deluges of water that had overflowed ſo large a part of it during many ages, while at the ſame time they brought under their ſubjection and command the rivers and ſeas that ſurround them, by dykes of incredible thickneſs and ſtrength, and made them the principal bulwarks on which they rely for the protection and ſafety of their territories againſt the danger of an enemy. This they have done by covering their frontiers and cities, with innumerable ſluices; by means of which, at the ſhorteſt notice, the moſt rapid inundations are let in, and they become in a few hours inacceſſible. From that frugality and perſeverance by which they have been ſo much characteriſed, they were enabled, though labouring under the greateſt difficulties, not only to throw off the Spaniſh yoke, but to attack that powerful nation in the moſt tender parts, by ſeizing her rich galleons, and forming new eſtabliſhments in Africa, and the Eaſt and Weſt Indies, at the expence of Spain, and thereby becoming, from a deſpicable province, a moſt powerful and formidable enemy. Equally wonderful was the riſe of their military and marine eſtabliſhments, maintaining, during their celebrated contention with Lewis XIV and Charles II of England, not leſs than 150,000 men, and upwards of eighty ſhips of the line. But a ſpirit of frugality being now leſs univerſal among them, the rich traders and mechanics begin to approximate to the luxuries of Engliſh and French dreſſing and living; and their nobility and high magiſtrates, who have retired from trade, rival thoſe of any other part of Europe in their table, buildings, furniture, and equipages.

The diverſions of the Dutch differ not much from thoſe of the Engliſh, who ſeem to have borrowed from them the neatneſs of their drinking-booths, ſkittle, and other grounds and ſmall pieces of water, which form the amuſements of the middling ranks, not to mention their hand-organs, and other muſical inventions. They are the beſt ſkaters upon the ice in the world. It is amazing to ſee the crowds in a hard froſt upon the ice, and the great dexterity both of men and women in darting along, or rather flying, with inconceivable velocity.

Dress.] Their dreſs formerly was noted for the large breeches of the men; and the jerkins, plain mobs, ſhort petticoats, and other oddities of women; all which, added to the natural thickneſs and clumſineſs of their perſons, gave them a very groteſque appearance. Theſe dreſſes now prevail only among the lower ranks, and more particularly amongſt the ſea-faring people.

Religion.] The eſtabliſhed religion here is the Preſbyterian and Calviniſm; none but Preſbyterians are admitted to any office or poſt in the government, excepting in the army; yet all religions and ſects are tolerated, and have their reſpective meetings or aſſemblies for public worſhip, among which the Papiſts and Jews are very numerous. And, indeed, this country may be conſidered as a ſtriking inſtance of the benefits ariſing to a nation from univerſal toleration. As every man is allowed to worſhip God according to the dictates of his own conſcience, perſons of the moſt oppoſite opinions live together in the moſt perfect harmony and peace. No man in this republic has any reaſon to complain of being oppreſſed on account of his religious principles, nor any hopes, by advancing his religion, to form a party, or to break in upon the government; and, therefore, in Holland, men live together as citizens of the world; their differences in opinion make none in affection, and they are aſſociated together by the common

common ties of humanity and bonds of peace, under the protection of the laws of the ſtate, with equal encouragement to arts and induſtry, and equal freedom of ſpeculation and enquiry.

LANGUAGE.] The natural language of the United Provinces is Low Dutch, which is a corrupted dialect of the German; but the people of faſhion ſpeak Engliſh and French. The Lord's Prayer runs thus: *Onſe Vader, die in de hemelin zyn uwen naam worde geheylight: uw'koningkryk kome: uwe wille geſchiede gelyck in den hemel zoo ook op den arden, ons dagelicks broot geef ons heeden, ende vergeeft onſe ſchulden gelyk ook wy vergeeven onſe ſchuldenaaren: ende en laat ons neit in verſoer kingemaer vertaſt on van der booſen.* Amen.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Eraſmus and Grotius, who were both natives of this country, ſtand at the head of modern learning, as Boerhaave does of medicine. Haerlem diſputes the invention of printing with the Germans, and the magiſtrates keep two copies of a book intitled *Speculum Salvationis*, printed by Koſter in 1440; and the moſt elegant editions of the claſſics came from the Dutch preſſes of Amſterdam, Rotterdam, Utrecht, Leyden, and other towns. The Dutch have excelled in controverſial divinity, which inſinuated itſelf ſo much into the ſtate, that before principles of univerſal toleration prevailed, it had almoſt proved fatal to the government; witneſs the violent diſputes about Arminianiſm, free-will, predeſtination, and the like. Beſides Boerhaave, they have produced excellent writers, in all branches of medicine. Grævius and Burman ſtand at the head of their numerous commentators upon the claſſics. Nothing is more common than their Latin poems and epigrams; and later times have produced a Van Haaren, who is poſſeſſed of ſome poetical abilities, and about the year 1747 publiſhed poems in favour of liberty, which were admired as rarities, chiefly becauſe their author was a Dutchman. In the other departments of literature, the Dutch publications are mechanical, and ariſe chiefly from their employments, in univerſities, church, or ſtate.

UNIVERSITIES.] Theſe are Leyden, Utrecht, Groningen, Harderwicke, and Franeker.

The univerſity of Leyden, which was founded in 1575, is the largeſt and moſt ancient in all the United Netherlands. Its library, beſides a number of printed books, has two thouſand oriental manuſcripts, many of which are in Arabic; and a large ſphere adapted to the Copernican ſyſtem, and moving by clock-work. Here is alſo a phyſic-garden, and an anatomical theatre.

The univerſity of Utrecht, in the province of the ſame name, was changed from a ſchool into an univerſity, in 1636; but it has not all the privileges of the other univerſities, being entirely ſubject to the magiſtrates of the city. The phyſic-garden here is very curious; and for the recreation of the ſtudents, on the eaſt ſide of the city juſt without the gate, is a beautiful mall, conſiſting of ſeven ſtraight walks, two thouſand paces in length, regularly planted with limes; but that in the middle is properly the mall.

There are abundance of youth, of the principal nobility and gentry, from moſt countries in Europe, at theſe ſeminaries of literature; and as every one may live as he pleaſes, without being obliged to be profuſe in his expences, or ſo much as quitting his night-gown for either weeks or months together, foreigners of all ranks and conditions are to be ſeen here. The force of example is ſtrikingly exhibited at theſe univerſities: for frugality in expence, order, a compoſed behaviour, attention to ſtudy, and aſſiduity in all things, being the characteriſtics of the natives, ſtrangers

who continue amongſt them, ſoon adopt their manners and forms of living. And though the ſtudents live as they pleaſe, and ſtudy as much or as little as they think fit, yet they are in general remarkable for their ſobriety and good manners, and the aſſiduity and ſucceſs with which they apply themſelves to their ſtudies. No oaths are impoſed, nor any religious teſts; ſo that Roman catholic parents, and even Jews, ſend their children here, with as little ſcruple as proteſtants.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } The prodigious dykes, ſome of which are ſaid to be ſeventeen ells in thickneſs, mounds, and canals, conſtructed by the Dutch, to preſerve their country from thoſe dreadful inundations by which it formerly ſuffered ſo much, are ſtupendous, and hardly to be equalled. A ſtone quarry near Maeſtricht, under a hill, is worked into a kind of ſubterraneous palace, ſupported by pillars twenty feet high. The ſtadthouſe of Amſterdam is perhaps the beſt building of that kind in the world: it ſtands upon 13,659 large piles, driven into the ground; and the inſide is equally convenient and magnificent. Several muſeums, containing antiquities and curioſities, artificial and natural, are to be found in Holland and the other provinces, particularly in the univerſity of Leyden; ſuch as the effigies of a peaſant of Ruſſia, who ſwallowed a knife ten inches in length, and is ſaid to have lived eight years after it was taken out of his ſtomach; but the truth of this ſeems to be doubtful. A ſhirt made of the entrails of a man. Two Egyptian mummies, being the bodies of two princes of great antiquity. All the muſcles and tendons of the human body curiouſly ſet up, by profeſſor Stalpert Vander Weil.

CITIES, TOWNS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. } Amſterdam, which is built upon piles of wood, is thought to contain 241,000 people, and to be, next to London, the moſt commercial city in the world. Its conveniences for commerce, and the grandeur of its public works, are almoſt beyond deſcription. In this, and all other cities of the United Provinces, the beauty of the canals, and walks under trees planted on their borders, are admirable; but above all, we are ſtruck with the neatneſs and cleanlineſs that is every where obſerved within doors. This city, however, labours under two great diſadvantages: bad air, and the want of freſh wholeſome water, which obliges the inhabitants to preſerve the rain water in reſervoirs. Rotterdam is next to Amſterdam for commerce and wealth; its inhabitants are computed at 56,000. The Hague, though but a village, is the ſeat of government in the United Provinces, and is celebrated for the magnificence and beauty of its buildings, the reſort of foreign ambaſſadors and ſtrangers of all diſtinctions who live in it, the abundance and cheapneſs of its proviſions, and the politeneſs of its inhabitants, who are computed to be about 40,000; it is no place of trade, but it has been for many years noted as an emporium of pleaſure and politics. Leyden and Utrecht are fine cities, as well as famous for their univerſities. Saardam, though a wealthy trading place, is mentioned here as the workſhop where Peter the Great, of Muſcovy, in perſon, ſerved his apprenticeſhip to ſhip-building, and laboured as a common handicraft. The upper part of Gelderland is ſubject to Pruſſia, and the capital city Gelder.

INLAND NAVIGATION, CANALS, AND MANNER OF TRAVELLING. } The uſual way of paſſing from town to town, is by covered boats called treckſcuits, which are dragged along the canal by horſes on a ſlow uniform trot, ſo that paſſengers reach the different towns where they are to ſtop, preciſely at the appointed inſtant of time. This method of travelling, though to ſtrangers rather dull, is extremely convenient to the inhabitants,

inhabitants, and very cheap. By means of theſe canals, an extenſive inland commerce is not only carried on through the whole country, but as they communicate with the Rhine and other large rivers, the productions of the whole earth are conveyed at a ſmall expence into various parts of Germany, and the Auſtrian and French Flanders. A treckſcuit is divided into two different apartments, called the roof and the ruim; the firſt for gentlemen, and the other for common people, who may read, ſmoke, eat, drink, or converſe with people of various nations, dreſſes, and languages. Near Amſterdam and other large cities, a traveller is aſtoniſhed when he beholds the effects of an extenſive and flouriſhing commerce. Here the canals are lined for miles together with elegant, neat country houſes, ſeated in the midſt of gardens and pleaſure-grounds, intermixed with figures, buſts, ſtatues, temples, &c. to the very water's edge. Having no objects of amuſement beyond the limits of their own gardens, the families in fine weather ſpend much of their time in theſe little temples, ſmoaking, reading, or viewing the paſſengers, to whom they appear complaiſant and polite.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] An account of the Dutch commerce would comprehend that of almoſt all Europe. There is ſcarcely a manufacture that they do not carry on, or a ſtate to which they do not trade. In this, they are aſſiſted by the populouſneſs of their country, the cheapneſs of their labour, and above all, by the water carriage, which, by means of their canals, gives them advantages beyond all other nations. The United Provinces are the grand magazine of Europe: and goods may be purchaſed here ſometimes cheaper than in the countries where they grow. The Eaſt India company have had the monoply of the fine ſpices for more than a hundred years, and till the late war with England was extremely opulent and powerful. Their capital city in India is Batavia, which is ſaid to exceed in magnificence, opulence, and commerce, all the cities of Aſia. Here the viceroys appear in greater ſplendour than the ſtadtholder; and ſome of the Dutch ſubjects in Batavia ſcarcely acknowledge any dependence on the mother country. They have other ſettlements in India, but none more pleaſant, healthful, or uſeful, than that on the Cape of Good Hope, the grand rendezvous of the ſhips of all nations, outward or homeward bound. When Lewis XIV invaded Holland with an army of 80,000 men, the Dutch made ſome diſpoſitions to ſhip themſelves off to their ſettlements in India; ſo great was their averſion to the French government. Not to mention their herring and whale fiſheries, which they have carried off from the native proprietors; they excel at home in numberleſs branches of trade; ſuch as their pottery, tobacco-pipes, delf-ware, finely refined ſalt; their oil-mills, and ſtarch-manufactures; their hemp, and fine paper manufactures; their fine linen and table damaſks; their ſaw-mills for timber, either for ſhipping or houſes, in immenſe quantities; their great ſugar-baking; their vaſt woollen, cotton, and ſilk manufactures; wax-bleaching; leather-dreſſing; the great quantity of coin and ſpecie, aſſiſted by their banks, eſpecially by that of Amſterdam; their Eaſt India trade; and their general induſtry and frugality. It is greatly doubted, however, whether their commerce, navigation, manufactures, and fiſheries, are in the ſame flouriſhing ſtate now as they were in the beginning of this century; and whether the riches and luxury of individuals have not damped the general induſtry of the inhabitants. Their commerce hath greatly ſuffered ſince the rupture with England, in 1780.

PUBLIC TRADING COMPANIES.] Of theſe, the capital is the Eaſt India, incorporated in 1602, by which formerly the Dutch acquired immenſe wealth, divided forty per cent. and ſometimes ſixty about the

year

year 1660; at preſent the dividends are much reduced; but in a hundred and twenty-four years, the proprietors on an averege, one year with another, divided ſomewhat above twenty-four per cent. But the Dutch Weſt India company, the ſame year, divided no more than two and a half per cent. This company was incorporated in 1621. The bank of Amſterdam is thought to be inexhauſtibly rich, and is under an excellent direction; it is ſaid by Sir William Temple, to contain the greateſt treaſure, either real or imaginary, that is known any where in the world. What may ſeem a paradox is, that this bank is ſo far from paying any intereſt, that the money in it is worth ſomewhat more than the current caſh is, in common payments. Mr. Anderſon ſuppoſes, that the caſh, bullion, and pawned jewels in this bank, which are kept in the vaults of the ſtadthouſe, amount to thirty-ſix (though others ſay only to thirty) millions ſterling.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] This is a very intricate article; for though the United Provinces ſubſiſt in a common confederacy, yet each province has an internal government or conſtitution independent of the others: this government is called the *ſtates* of that province; and the delegates from them form the *ſtates-general*, in whom the ſovereignty of the whole confederacy is veſted; but though a province ſhould ſend two or more delegates, yet ſuch province has no more than one voice in every reſolution; and before that reſolution can have the force of a law, it muſt be approved of by every province, and by every city and republic in that province. This formality in times of great danger and emergency has been ſet aſide. Every reſolution of the ſtates of a particular province muſt be carried unanimouſly.

The *council of ſtate* conſiſts likewiſe of deputies from the ſeveral provinces: but its conſtitution is different from that of the ſtates-general; it is compoſed of twelve perſons, whereof Gelderland ſends two; Holland, three; Zealand, two; Utrecht, two; Frieſland, one; Overyſſel, one; and Groningen, one. Theſe deputies, however, do not vote provincially, but perſonally. Their buſineſs is to prepare eſtimates, and ways and means for raiſing the revenue, as well as other matters that are to be laid before the ſtates-general. The ſtates of the provinces are ſtyled "Noble and Mighty Lords," but thoſe of Holland, "Noble and Moſt "Mighty Lords;" and the ſtates-general, "High and Mighty Lords," or, "The Lords the States-general of the United Netherlands;" or, "Their "High Mightineſſes." Subordinate to theſe two bodies, is the chamber of accompts, which is likewiſe compoſed of provincial deputies, who audit all public accompts. The admiralty forms a ſeparate board, and the executive part of it is committed to five colleges in the three maritime provinces of Holland, Zealand, and Frieſland. In Holland the people have nothing to do either in chooſing their repreſentatives or their magiſtrates. In Amſterdam, which takes the lead in all public deliberations; the magiſtracy is lodged in thirty-ſix ſenators, who are choſen for life, and every vacancy among them is filled up by the ſurvivors. The ſame ſenate alſo elects the deputies to repreſent the cities in the province of Holland.

I have mentioned the above particulars, becauſe, without a knowledge of them, it is impoſſible to underſtand the hiſtory of the United Provinces from the Death of king William to the year 1747, when the ſtadtholderſhip was made hereditary in the male and female repreſentatives of the family of Orange. This office in a manner ſuperſedes the conſtitution already deſcribed. The ſtadtholder is preſident of the ſtates of every province; and ſuch is his power and influence, that he can change the deputies, magiſtrates, and officers, in every province and city. By this he has the moulding of the aſſembly of the ſtates-general, though he has no voice it, in ſhort,

though

though he has not the title, he has more real power and authority than ſome kings; for, beſides the influence and revenue he derives from the ſtadtholderſhip, he has ſeveral principalities and large eſtates of his own. The preſent ſtadtholder is William V prince of Orange and Naſſau, ſon of the late ſtadtholder William Charles, who married Anne, princeſs royal of Great Britain, and died 1751.

Though Holland is a republic, yet its government is far from being of the popular kind; nor do the people enjoy that degree of liberty which might at firſt view be apprehended. It is, indeed, rather an oligarchy than a commonwealth; for the bulk of the people are not ſuffered to have the leaſt ſhare in any part of the government, not even in the choice of the deputies. It may alſo be obſerved, that very few perſons in this ſtate dare ſpeak their real ſentiments freely; and they are generally educated in principles ſo extremely cautious, that they cannot relinquiſh them when they enter more into public life.

With reſpect to the adminiſtration of juſtice in this country, every province has its tribunal, to which, except in criminal cauſes, appeal lies from the petty and county courts; and it is ſaid that juſtice is no where diſtributed with more impartiality.

REVENUES.] The goverment of the United Provinces proportion their taxes according to the abilities of each province or city. Thoſe taxes conſiſt of an almoſt general exciſe, a land-tax, poll-tax, and hearth-money; ſo that the public revenue amounts annually to about two millions and a half ſterling. The province of Holland pays nearly half of this revenue. The following is the rate at which each of the Seven United Provinces is ſaid to contribute towards the public expence:

Of every million of ducats, the Province of	
Holland contributes - - -	420,000
Zealand - - - - -	130,000
Frieſland - - - - -	170,000
Utrecht - - - - -	85,000
Groningen - - - - -	75,000
Gelderland - - - - -	70,000
Overyſſel - - - - -	50,000

Of the 420,000 ducats paid by the province of Holland, the city of Amſterdam furniſhes upwards of 320,000. The taxes in theſe provinces are ſo heavy, and ſo many, that it is not without reaſon a certain author aſſerts, that the only thing which has eſcaped taxation there, is the air they breathe. But for the encouragement of trade, the duties on goods and merchandiſe are exceedingly low. Holland, before the breach with England, was in a very flouriſhing condition, and at this very time, they lend large ſums to moſt of the powers in Europe. The immenſe ſums in the Britiſh funds have given reaſon for ſome people to imagine that Holland labours under heavy debts; but the chief reaſon is, the ſtate only pays two and a half per cent. intereſt for money.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] The number of land forces in the United Provinces in time of peace, commonly amounts to about forty thouſand: twenty-five thouſand of whom ſerve in garriſons; many of them are Scots and Swiſs; and, in time of war, they hire whole regiments of Germans. The chief command of the army is veſted in the ſtadtholder, under whom is the field marſhal general. The marine force of the United Provinces uſed to be very great, and they formerly fitted out very formidable fleets: but their navy has of late been much neglected. Their late war with Great Britain obliged them to increaſe it; and they have great reſources for that purpoſe. Acording to the laſt accounts, their navy conſiſts

fifts of one flip of 76 guns, three of 70, four of 68, five of 60, eight of 56, four of 50, five of 44, nine of 40, and ten of 36, befides veffels of inferior force. But they have many fhips upon the ftocks, and their fleet will probably be much augmented, and in future be kept in better order.

ORDER OF TEUTONIC KNIGHTS.] This was one of the moft powerful as well as ancient orders in Europe, now divided into two branches; the firft for papifts, and the fecond branch for proteftants. This branch have a houfe at Utrecht, where they tranfact their bufinefs. The nobles of Holland, if they propofe a fon to be a knight, they enter his name in the regifter, and pay a large fum of money to the ufe of the poor maintained by the order, and the candidate fucceeds in rotation, if he brings with him proof of his nobility for four generations on the father's and mother's fide. The enfign is a crofs pattie, enamelled white, furmounted with another black; above the crofs is a ball twifted, white and black, it is worn pendent to a broad black watered riband, which is worn about the neck. The fame crofs is embroidered on the left breaft of the upper garment of each knight.

ARMS.] The enfigns armorial of the feven United Provinces, or the States of Holland, are, *Or*, a lion, gules, holding with one paw a cutlafs, and with the other a bundle of feven arrows clofe bound together, in allufion to the feven confederate provinces, with the following motto: *Concordia res parvæ crefcunt.*

HISTORY.] See the Auftrian Netherlands.

William V, prince of Orange and Naffau, Hereditary Stadtholder, Captain-general and Admiral of the Seven United Provinces, and knight of the Garter, was born March 19, 1748, married, in 1767, the princefs Frederica Sophia Wihellmina, of Pruffia, born in 1751; by whom he has iffue,

1. Frederica-Louifa-Wilhelmina, born Nov. 28, 1770; married to the hereditary Prince of Brunfwick.

2. William-Frederic, hereditary Prince, born Aug. 2, 1772; married Oct. 1, 1791, to Princefs Frederica-Sophia-Wilhelmina, of Pruffia.

3. William George-Frederic, born Feb. 15, 1774.

The Stadtholder hath one fifter, Wilhelmina-Carolina, born 1743, and married to the Prince of Naffau Wielburg.

AUSTRIAN and FRENCH NETHERLANDS.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.	
Length 200	between	49 and 52	North latitude.
Breadth 200		2 and 7	Eaft longitude.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by the United Provinces on the North; by Germany, Eaft; by Lorrain, Champaign, and Picardy, in France, South; and by another part of Picardy, and the Engliih fea, Weft.

As this county belongs to three different powers, the Auftrians, French, and Dutch, we fhall be more particular in diftinguifhing the provinces and towns belonging to each ftate.

1. Province

1. Province of BRABANT.

Subdivisions.		Chief Towns.		Sq. M.
1. Dutch Brabant	——	Boisleduc Breda Bergen-op-Zoom	N.	1374
		Grave, NE.		
		Lillo Steenbergen.	NW.	
2. Austrian Brabant	——	Bruſſels, E. long. 4 deg. 6 min. N. lat. 50-50		1892
		Louvain Vilvorden Landen	in the middle.	

2. ANTWERP; and, 3. MALINES, are provinces independent of Brabant, though ſurrounded by it, and ſubject to the Houſe of Auſtria.

4. Province of LIMBURG, SE.

Chief Towns	——	Limburg, E. long. 65. N. lat. 50-37. ſub. to Auſtria.		312
		Maeſtricht Dalem Fauquemont, or Valkenburg	ſub. to the Dutch	300

5. Province of LUXEMBURG.

Auſtrian Luxemburg	——	Luxemburg, E. long. 6-8. N. lat. 49. 15.		
French Luxemburg	——	Thionville	SE.	2408
		Montmedy		292

6. Province of NAMUR, in the middle, ſubject to Auſtria.

Chief Towns	——	Namur, on the Sambre and Maeſe, E. long. 4-50. lat. 50-30		425
		Charleroy on the Sambre.		

7. Province of HAINAULT.

Auſtrian Hainault	——	Mons, E. long. 3-33. N. lat. 50-30 Aeth Enguin	in the middle.	640
French Hainault	——	Valenciennes Bouchain Condé Landrecy	SW.	800

8. Province of CAMBRESIS.

Subject to France	——	Cambray, E. of Arras, E. long. 3-15. N. lat. 50-15.		150
		Crevecour, S. of Cambray.		

9. Province of ARTOIS.

Subject to France	——	Arras, SW. on the Scarpe, E. long. 2-5. N. lat. 50-20 St. Omer, E. of Boulogne Aire, S. of St. Omer St. Venant, E. of Aire Bethune, SE. of Aire Terouen, S. of St. Omer		990

10. Province

10. Province of FLANDERS.

Subdivisions.		Chief Towns.	Sq. M.
Dutch Flanders		Sluis, N.	280
		Axel, N.	
		Hulſt, N.	
		Sans van Gent, N.	
Auſtrian Flanders		Ghent, on the Scheldt, E. lon. 3-36. N. lat. 51.	190
		Bruges, Oſtend, Newport } NW. near the ſea.	
		Oudenard on the Scheldt.	
		Courtray, Dixmude } on the Lis.	
		Ypres, N. of Liſle	
		Tournay on the Scheldt.	
		Menin on the Lis.	
French Flanders		Liſle, W. of Tournay	760
		Dunkirk, on the coaſt E. of Calais	
		Douay, W. of Arras	
		Mardike, W. of Dunkirk	
		St. Amand, N. of Valenciennes	
		Gravelin, E. of Calais	

AIR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The air of Brabant, and upon the coaſt of Flanders, is bad; that in the interior parts is more healthful, and the ſeaſons more ſettled, both in winter and ſummer, than they are in England. The ſoil and its produce are rich, eſpecially in corn and fruits. They have abundance of paſture; and Flanders itſelf has been reckoned the granary of France and Germany, and ſometimes of England. The moſt barren parts for corn rear far more profitable crops of flax, which is here cultivated to great perfection. Upon the whole, the Auſtrian Netherlands, by the culture, commerce, and induſtry of the inhabitants, was formerly the richeſt and moſt beautiful ſpot in Europe, whether we regard the variety of its manufactures, the magnificence and riches of its cities, the pleaſantneſs of its roads and villages, or the fertility of its land. If it has fallen off in latter times, it is owing partly to the neglect of its government, but chiefly to its vicinity to England and Holland; but it is ſtill a moſt deſirable and agreeable country. There are few or no mountains in the Netherlands: Flanders is a flat country, ſcarcely a ſingle hill in it. Brabant and the reſt of the provinces, conſiſt of little hills and vallies, woods, incloſed grounds, and champaign fields.

RIVERS AND CANALS.] The chief rivers are the Maeſe, Sambre, Demer, Dyle, Nethe, Geet, Sanne, Ruppel, Scheldt, Lis, Scarpe, Deule, and Dender. The principal canals are thoſe of Bruſſels, Ghent, and Oſtend.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Mines of iron, copper, lead, and brimſtone, are found in Luxemburg, and Limburg, as are ſome marble quarries; and in the province of Namur there are coal-pits, and a ſpecies of bituminous fat earth proper for fuel, with great plenty of foſſile nitre.

INHABITANTS, POPULATION, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.] The Flemings (for ſo the inhabitants of Flanders and the Auſtrian Low Countries are generally called) are thought to be a heavy, blunt, honeſt people; but their manners are ſomewhat indelicate. Formerly they were known to fight deſperately in defence of their country; at preſent they make no great figure. The Auſtrian Netherlands are extremely

tremely populous; but authors differ as to their numbers. Perhaps we may fix them at a medium at a million and a half. They are ignorant, and fond of religious exhibitions and pageants. Their other diverſions are the ſame with thoſe of the peaſants of the neighbouring countries.

DRESS AND LANGUAGE.] The inhabitants of French Flanders are mere French men and women in both theſe particulars. The Flemings, on the frontiers of Holland, dreſs like the Dutch boors, and their language is the ſame; but the better ſort of the people ſpeak French, and dreſs in the ſame taſte.

RELIGION.] The eſtabliſhed religion here is the Roman catholic; but proteſtants, and other ſects, are not moleſted.

ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] The archibiſhoprics are Cambray, Malines or Mechlin: the biſhoprics, Ghent, Bruges, Antwerp, Arras, Ypres, Tournay, St. Omer, Namur, and Ruremonde.

LEARNING, LEARNED MEN, AND ARTISTS.] The ſocieties of Jeſuits formerly produced the moſt learned men in the Auſtrian Low Countries, in which they had many comfortable ſettlements. Works of Theology, and the civil and canon law, Latin poems and plays, were their chief productions. Strada is an elegant hiſtorian and poet. The Flemiſh painters and ſculptors have great merit, and form a ſchool by themſelves. The works of Reubens and Vandyke cannot be ſufficiently admired. Fiamingo, or the Flemings, models for heads, particularly thoſe of children, have never yet been equalled; and the Flemings formerly engroſſed tapeſtry weaving to themſelves.

UNIVERSITIES.] Louvain, Douay, Tournay, and St. Omer. The firſt was founded in 1426, by John IV. duke of Brabant, and enjoys great privileges. By a grant of pope Sixtus IV. this univerſity has the privilege of preſenting to all the livings in the Netherlands, which right they enjoy, except in Holland.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] Some Roman monuments of temples and other buildings are to be found in theſe provinces. Many curious bells, churches, and the like, ancient and modern, are alſo found here; and the magnificent old edifices of every kind, ſeen through all their cities, give evidences of their former grandeur. In 1607, ſome labourers found 1600 gold coins, and ancient medals of Antoninus Pius, Aurelius, and Lucius Verus.

CITIES.] This article has employed ſeveral large volumes publiſhed by different authors, but in times when the Auſtrian Netherlands were far more flouriſhing than now. The walls of Ghent, formerly the capital of Flanders, and celebrated for its linen and woollen manufactures, contain the circuit of ten miles; but now unoccupied, and great part of it in a manner a void. Bruges, formerly ſo noted for its trade and manufactures, but above all for its fine canals, is now dwindled to an inconſiderable place. Oſtend is a tolerable convenient harbour for traders; and ſoon after the late rupture between Great Britain and Holland, became more opulent and populous. In 1781, it was viſited by the Emperor, who granted to it many privileges and franchiſes, and the free exerciſe of the proteſtant religion. As to Ypres, it is only a ſtrong garriſon town. The ſame may be ſaid of Charleroy and Namur.

Louvain, the capital of the Auſtrian Brabant, inſtead of its flouriſhing manufactures and places of trade, now contains pretty gardens, walks, and arbours. Bruſſels retains ſomewhat of its ancient manufactures; and being the reſidence of the governor or viceroy of the Auſtrian Netherlands, it is a populous, lively place. Antwerp, once the emporium of the European continent, is now reduced to be a tapeſtry and thread-lace ſhop, with the houſes of ſome bankers, jewellers, and painters adjoining. One

of

of the firſt exploits of the Dutch, ſoon after they threw off the Spaniſh yoke, was to ruin at once the commerce of Antwerp, by ſinking veſſels, loaded with ſtone, in the mouth of the Scheldt; thus ſhutting up the entrance of that river to ſhips of large burden. This was the more cruel, as the people of Antwerp had been their friends and fellow-ſufferers in the cauſe of liberty, but they foreſaw that the proſperity of their own commerce was at ſtake.

It may be obſerved here, that every gentleman's houſe is a caſtle or *chateau*; and that there are more ſtrong towns in the Netherlands than in all the reſt of Europe; but ſince the decline of their trade, by the riſe of the Engliſh and Dutch, theſe towns are conſiderably diminiſhed in ſize, and whole ſtreets, particularly in Antwerp, are in appearance uninhabited. In the Netherlands, proviſions are extremely good and cheap. A ſtranger may dine at Bruſſels, on ſeven or eight diſhes of meat, for leſs than a ſhilling Engliſh. Travelling is ſafe, reaſonable, and delightful, in this luxurious country. The roads are generally a broad cauſeway, and run for ſome miles in a ſtraight line, till they terminate with the view of ſome noble buildings. At Caſſel, in the French Netherlands, may be ſeen thirty-two towns, itſelf being on a hill.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The chief manufactures of the French and Auſtrian Netherlands, are their beautiful linens and laces; in which, notwithſtanding the boaſted improvements of their neighbours, they are yet unrivalled; particularly in that ſpecies called cambrics, from Cambray, the chief place of its manufacture. Theſe manufactures form the principal article of their commerce.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The Auſtrian Netherlands are ſtill conſidered as a circle of the empire, of which the archducal houſe, as being ſovereign of the whole, is the ſole director and ſummoning prince. This circle contributes its ſhare to the impoſts of the empire, and ſends an envoy to the diet, but is not ſubject to the judicatories of the empire. It is under a governor-general, appointed by the court of Vienna, who is at preſent the archduchefs Chriſtiana, ſiſter to the late emperor Joſeph II, and her huſband, the duke of Saxe Teſchen. The face of an aſſembly, or parliament, for each province, is ſtill kept up, and conſiſts of the clergy, nobility, and deputies of towns, who meet at Bruſſels. Each province claims particular privileges, but they are of little effect; and the governor ſeldom or never finds any reſiſtance to the will of his court. Every province has a particular governor, ſubject to the regent: and cauſes are here decided according to the civil and canon law.

REVENUES.] Theſe riſe from the demeſne lands and cuſtoms: but ſo much is the trade of the Auſtrian Flanders now reduced, that they are ſaid not to defray the expence of their government; but by the late reduction of the garriſons, this is now altered. The French Netherlands bring in a conſiderable revenue to the nation.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The troops maintained here by the emperor are chiefly employed in the frontier garriſons. Though, by the barrier treaty, the Auſtrians were obliged to maintain three-fifths of thoſe garriſons, and the Dutch two; yet both of them were miſerably deficient in their quotas, the whole requiring at leaſt 30,000 men, and in time of war above 10,000 more. But the emperor Joſeph II. demoliſhed the fortifications of moſt of the places, and rendered the garriſons uſeleſs.

ARMS.] The arms of Flanders are, or, a lion ſable, langued gules.

HISTORY.] The ſeventeen provinces, and that part of Germany which lies weſt of the Rhine, was called Belgica Gallia by the Romans. About a century before the Chriſtian æra, the Battæ removed from Heſſe to the marſhy country bounded by the Rhine and the Maeſe. They gave the name of Batavia to their new country. Generous and brave, the Batavians

were treated by the Romans with great reſpect, being exempted from tribute, governed by their own laws, and obliged only to perform military ſervices. Upon the decline of that empire, the Goths, and other nothern people, poſſeſſed themſelves of theſe provinces firſt, as they paſſed through them in their way to France, and other parts of the Roman empire: and afterwards being erected into ſmall governments, the heads of which were deſpotic within their own dominions, Batavia and Holland became independent on Germany, to which it had been united under one of the grandſons of Charlemagne, in the beginning of the 10th century, when the ſupreme authority was lodged in the three united powers, of a Count, the Nobles, and the Towns. At laſt, they were ſwallowed up by the houſe of Burgundy, anno 1433.

The emperor Charles V, the heir of that family, transferred them, in the year 1477, to the houſe of Auſtria, and ranked them as part of the empire, under the title of the Circle of Burgundy. The tyranny of his ſon, Philip II, who ſucceeded to the throne of Spain, made the inhabitants attempt to throw off his yoke, which occaſioned a general inſurrection. the counts Hoorn, and Egmont, and the prince of Orange, appearing at the head of it; and Luther's reformation gaining ground about the ſame time in the Netherlands, his diſciples were forced by perſecution to join the malecontents. Whereupon king Philip introduced a kind of inquiſition, which from the inhumanity of its proceedings, was called the "Council of blood," in order to ſuppreſs them; and many thouſands were put to death by that court, beſides thoſe that periſhed by the ſword. Count Hoorn and count Egmont were taken and beheaded; but the prince of Orange, whom they elected to be their ſtadtholder, retiring into Holland, that and the adjacent provinces entered into a treaty for their mutual defence, at Utrecht, in the year 1579. And though theſe revolters at firſt were thought ſo deſpicable as to be termed *Beggars* by their tyrants, their perſeverance and courage were ſuch, under the prince of Orange, and the aſſiſtance afforded them by queen Elizabeth, both in troops and money, that they forced the crown of Spain to declare them a free people, in the year 1609; and afterwards they were acknowledged by all Europe to be an independant ſtate, under the title of THE UNITED PROVINCES. By their ſea wars with England, under the Commonwealth, Cromwell, and Charles II. they juſtly acquired the reputation of a formidable naval power. When the houſe of Auſtria, which for ſome ages ruled over Germany, Spain, and part of Italy, with which they afterwards continued to carry on bloody wars was become no longer formidable; and when the public jealouſy was directed againſt that of Bourbon, which was favoured by the government of Holland, who had diſpoſſeſſed the prince of Orange of the ſtadtholderſhip; the ſpirit of the people was ſuch, that they revived it in the perſon of the prince, who was afterwards William III, king of Great Britain; and during his reign, and that of queen Anne, they were principals in the grand confederacy againſt Lewis XIV, king of France.

Their conduct towards England in the wars of 1742 and 1756, hath been diſcuſſed in the hiſtory of that country, as alſo the occurrences which led to a rupture between them and the Engliſh in the year 1780. As it was urged, that they refuſed to fulfil the treaties which ſubſiſted between them and Great Britain, ſo all the treaties which bound Great Britain to them were declared null and void, as if none had ever exiſted. By the war, their trade ſuffered conſiderably, but Negapatnam, in the Eaſt Indies, is the only place not reſtored to them by the late peace.

Probably, to their ſeparation from Great Britain, may be attributed the late differences between the States General and the late emperor Joſeph II. who

who, from the exhauſted ſtate of ſeveral of the European powers, ſeemed to have a favourable opportunity of accompliſhing his ambitious deſigns. In the year 1781, he had been allowed to demoliſh the Dutch barrier in his dominions, for which they had contended ſo deſperately in the time of queen Anne, and he now ſeemed willing to encroach upon their territories. A conference concerning the boundaries of their reſpective nations was propoſed to the ſtates; but before this could take place, he began to commit ſome acts of hoſtility, and extended his dominions a little by way of preliminary. Two ſmall forts, St. Donat, and St. Paul, were ſeized upon, as well as ſome part of the marſhes in the neighbourhood of Sluys. As a prelude to the negociations, he alſo demanded, that the Dutch guard-ſhip ſhould be removed from before Lillo, in acknowledgment that one of the prerogatives of his Imperial majeſty was the free navigation of the Scheldt. This being complied with, the negotiations were opened at Bruſſels, on the 24th of April, 1784, when ſeveral other demands of ſmall portions of territory and little ſums of money were made; the moſt material requiſition being the town of Maeſtricht, and its territory. For ſome time the conferences were carried on in that dry and tedious manner which generally marks the proceedings of the Dutch; but the emperor urged on his demands with great vigour, and matters ſeemed faſt tending towards an open rupture. On the 2nd of Auguſt, he delivered in his *ultimatum* to the commiſſioners at Bruſſels, in which he offered to give up his demand on Maeſtricht, in conſideration of having the free and unlimited navigation of the Scheldt in both its branches to the ſea; and in token of his confidence of the good intentions of the States, he determined to conſider the river as open from the date of that paper. Any inſult on his flags, in the execution of theſe purpoſes, he would conclude to be a direct act of hoſtility, and a formal declaration of war on the part of the republic. To prevent the injuries which the States-General had in view to eſtab..., contrary to the inconteſtible rights of his Imperial majeſty, and to leave no doubt of his unalterable reſolution to adhere to the propoſitions contained in the ultimatum, his majeſty could not forbear determining to ſend to ſea, from Antwerp, a ſhip under his flag, after having declared long enough before in what manner he ſhould conſider all violent oppoſition that might be made to the free paſſage of the ſaid ſhip.

The ſhip was ſtopped in its paſſage, as was another ordered to ſail from Oſtend up the Sheldt to Antwerp. But the Dutch offered to diſmiſs the veſſels if the captains would engage to return to their reſpective places, and not continue their voyage on the river, which they refuſed to do. This the emperor called inſulting his flag, and declared to all foreign courts, he could not look on this fact but as "an effective declaration of war on the part of the republic." In anſwer to their conduct, in ſtopping the Imperial ſhips, which the emperor ſtyled an inſult to his flag, and by which he declared them to have begun hoſtilities, the Dutch miniſters at Bruſſels, in a paper delivered to that court, proteſt, "that as their ſole aim was to ſupport their uncontrovertible right, they connot be ſuſpected of any hoſtile aggreſſion, which is the leſs to be laid to their charge, as they poſitively declared not to ſtand any ways anſwerable for the conſequences that may enſue from the particular conſtruction which his Imperial majeſty may be pleaſed to put upon the affair. The republic, far from being conſidered in the light of a power having acted offenſively, ſtill perſiſted in their peaceable diſpoſitions, but if unfortunately ſuch diſpoſitions can have no influence on the mind of his Imperial majeſty, though the States ſtill preſerved ſome hopes to the contrary, the Republic will find itſelf in the diſagreeable neceſſity of having recourſe to ſuch means as the rights of nature and nations